

The Social Studies

Continuing

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

VOLUME XL

JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1949

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 1

Continuing The Historical Outlook

JANUARY, 1949

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1949

Patriotism in an Upset World: Can It Survive?

A. FRANKLIN ROSS

Ridgewood, New Jersey

Theodor Mommsen, the great historian of Rome, ends his *History of Rome* with the following lines:

We have reached the end of the Roman Republic. We have seen it rule for 500 years in Italy and in the countries on the Mediterranean; we have seen it brought to ruin in politics and morals, religion and literature, not through outward violence but through inward decay, and thereby make room for the new monarchy of Caesar. There was in the world, as Caesar found it, much of the noble heritage of past centuries and an infinite amount of pomp and glory, but little spirit, still less taste, least of all true delight in life. It was indeed an old world, and even the richly-gifted patriotism of Caesar could not make it young again.

When Mommsen was asked why he ended his *History of Rome* with the collapse of the Republic, he replied: "Because I could never convince myself as to the essential facts and interpretation of what came afterwards."

Our Republic has spanned but a part of the 500 years of the Roman Republic. When the Roman Republic collapsed, the dangers from without were no greater than they had ever been, but within dry rot was evident on all sides. Does our land still have the inward health to cope with the cancers of decay that work relentlessly into the vitals of the land? We have wealth and engineering skill, but these will not guarantee the security of any people. Rome had these possessions too. Our external com-

plexities are serious enough, but the moral confusion of the times is more devastating. Even the home can no longer be trusted as an anchor to windward. In a recent magazine article, Professor Stace asserts that faith and religion and any recognition of purpose in the universe have disappeared and morals have become merely relative affairs, creations of each person.

All the prophets of gloom have not arisen since the days of Hitler and Stalin. Brooks Adams, as far back as 1895, wrote *The Law of Civilization and Decay* and at the same time his still more gifted brother, Henry Adams, was trembling at the impending collapse of the British Empire and the direful effects it would have on the United States.

Mommsen in referring to the richly-gifted patriotism of Caesar was speaking candidly and with profound knowledge. What he was trying to convey is the fact that it takes more than one patriot, however gifted, to save any land. Patriotism to be effective must have roots. It must rise from the common man. It must be expendable and regret only that it has but one life to give for the fatherland.

Patriotism is the response that is called forth by perils to the fatherland. It is more than good citizenship; it includes good citizenship with much more added. It is not unlike the extra something which a once-famous merchant put into an advertisement: "The part of the blanket that keeps you warm is the part that hangs down over the edge of the bed." Patriotism is reckless of personal cost in its devotion to a

higher purpose. Furthermore, it has an infectious quality, as illustrated by an incident in the generally sordid picture of the struggle of France and Spain for the control of northern Italy. The French cause seemed all but lost when Gaston de Faux stepped to the front of his column and rang out the challenge: "Let all who love me follow me"—and victory followed.

In the critical cynicism of the present scientific age we need to be on guard that we do not confuse patriotism with buncombe, or character with fustian. It took the genius of Shakespeare to make the distinction unmistakably clear in the character of ancient Pistol. Through the character of Pistol, who proclaimed his own qualities and importance in the world, Shakespeare's audiences perceived the inherent weakness of men in general. And the character delighted them.

William James coined the happy phrase: "The moral equivalent of war." Not only do we have the much advertised cold war against the enemies of free government, we have, also, a less advertised but more dangerous war within our own borders. Lord Macaulay, writing about America a hundred years ago, had this to say: "Either some Caesar or Napoleon will seize the reins of government, or your republic will be fearfully plundered and laid waste by barbarians engendered in your own country, by your own institutions."

Since good and evil, like Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde, are ever with us, it is likely that moral equivalents of war are never absent from our midst. The war at present is to retain faith in moral values, without which American ideals would not exist. Moral wars suffer in support because they do not carry the glamour and dramatic quality of the clash of arms. But the effects of the moral battles far outweigh in importance the wars of military forces. John Wesley, preaching in a lonely churchyard, may seem pitiful, but the effects of that preaching lifted a whole nation from sodden immorality to a sense of decency and self respect.

Children can no longer count on a home that will be kept intact. The home is no longer the assured haven in which the sense of right and wrong in matters of moral relations can be learned. The young who look to national leaders for lessons in citizenship fare no better. They

behold a display of jungle morals. Further, we are told by the materialists that there are no verities remaining in life, that the ship we call society is sinking, and that we can do nothing about it, that the time for doing anything effective has passed.

There is nothing particularly new or original in the current materialism. It would be new and significant, if true, that the cult has taken possession of the popular mind. If that were true, instruction at all levels would be useless and might well cease. We may remember, however, that while Rome was rotting, the Christians were living in the Catacombs beneath the city. Today the bones that rest in the niches of the Catacombs may crumble into powdery dust at the touch of a finger, but the spirit of the martyrs is not dead. In the war to preserve the realities of American civilization there are no draftees. If other traditional forces fail in moral leadership, the quiet influence of the teacher may still be the means of sending forth patriots.

It is important, therefore, for teachers, parents, and all to inquire as to what are the sources from which patriotism springs. We do not need to make a categorical list of all the verities existing. It is sufficient if we set out on the quest to identify the verities, with a method and a sense of direction. For example, no one has ever been able to weigh and measure mother love, but no one doubts its existence. Neither does anyone deny the existence of the mutual sympathy which binds the members of families, or that it is this same element that holds society together.

That conception is not new. Henry Drummond, who sought to trace the analogy between natural law in the physical world and law in the spiritual world, wrote a book which, although it has been forgotten, taught an important scientific lesson. The title of the book was *The Struggle for the Life of Others*. Drummond traced the account of mutual aid from the humblest mollusk to the latest member of the human family. Mutual aid, by whatever name it may be called—sympathy, love, patriotism—lies imbedded in all animate life. The difficulty confronting the human family, since man is a reasoning being, is to make that aid conscious and rational. Man must be instructed, therefore, to understand what Ben Franklin meant

when he said: "We must all hang together, or assuredly we shall hang separately."

In forwarding that instruction the greatest teacher in modern times has been Immanuel Kant. The teaching of Kant, with its prodigious erudition, seems to many like a wall of granite. And yet it was Schiller, the author of *William Tell*, and a great philosopher in his own right, who said of Immanuel Kant's system: "Philosophers only disagree, while mankind have never done so. Kant's ideas appear as the verdict of reason pronounced from time immemorial by common consent and as facts of the moral instinct."

The Kantian philosophy, about which libraries have been written, falls into three parts or "categories." The second part called "The Critique of Practical Reason" recognizes our absolute obligation to obey the moral law as determined by the nature of ultimate reality. Further, the existence of the moral law and the obligation to obey it presupposes that our wills are free to do so. Here we confront the "imperatives," the judgments that are universally binding—the unconditional "oughts" that make up what we call "duty." Act so as to treat humanity as an end, not a means. If you are in doubt as to the moral character of an action, simply ask yourself: "What would become of humanity if everyone were to act according to the same principle?" So act that your will could be regarded as a universal law. None but the patriot can banish self interest sufficiently to live up to such a rigorous test:

Love took up the harp of life, and smote on all the chords with might;

Smote the chords of self, that, trembling, passed in music out of sight.

The law of duty would have no meaning if we did not have the power to obey it. Hence the freedom we possess is derived from that law and makes possible the discharge of the obligations of duty.

It follows also from the same law that faith in God, the soul, and immortality is no less sure than the certainty of knowledge. Without faith in unseen realities and the will to fight for them there could be no such thing as patriotism. However, the freedom referred to must be purchased at a price, a high price. It does not include the selfish whims of individuals or even the overworked principle of self-expression.

The teachings of Kant are valuable to teachers and adults in general in these turbulent times. They answer the demands of moral duty based on reason. Kant did not use the moral law as a substitute for a belief in God. On the contrary in *The Summum Bonum* he brings forward proof for the validity of the ideas of God, freedom and immortality. That is not the same thing as proof of the existence of God; that is the task of a rational faith.

The reason for urging a return to the study of Kant's teachings must be obvious. We are not advocating the pursuit of knowledge for the sake of knowledge. We are recommending the kind of knowledge that will contribute to the making of patriots. In *The Critique of Practical Reason* one may find a tough-minded rational basis for the performance of duty. It supplies a reason for the faith that is within and for a belief in the dignity of each human soul.

How may the qualities that go to make up the patriot be transmitted to the pupil? Certainly not by dogmatic teaching. The convictions of the teacher are bound to react upon the pupil. Ideas are contagious. A look or an expression may be as eloquent as a speech. Not only living in the presence of a teacher who believes in the imperatives of life, but re-living vicariously the lives of American heroes will develop loyalty to principle. One who understands the Kantian principles will have no great trouble in translating them into the vernacular of boys and girls, for they are as Schiller said: "The verdict of reason, pronounced from time immemorial as facts of the moral instinct."

Nevertheless teaching Americanism is not an easy or mechanical task. Teaching moral values may be simple but never easy. It is infinitely easier to teach the goose step either in Berlin or Moscow than to teach respect for the sanctity of the human spirit. Any kind of totalitarianism lends itself readily to indoctrination. It is not so in the teaching of American ideals, not if the result is to be a passionate devotion to those ideals. It is for these reasons that the less there is of government, of centralization, the less there is of bureaucratic control, the more there will be of vital citizenship and patriotism. These qualities practiced in general will save our American system from the inward decay that sent Rome on the downward course to destruction.

Great Britain's Struggle toward Recovery

GEORGE W. KYTE

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The long years of war, from 1939 to 1945, took a terrible toll of the resources and energies of the British people.¹ The war also took a frightful toll of the economic resources of Great Britain. Millions of tons of shipping were lost to enemy torpedoes and bombs. Vast numbers of buildings were destroyed or damaged by air raids and by guided missiles. The financial credits of the country were exhausted by the pitiless demand for war materials and munitions. By the end of 1945, Great Britain was literally bankrupt. She had helped to win a war, but, in doing so, she had seemingly been forced to destroy her own economy.

Since 1945 the British have been fighting to recover from the destruction and wastage of war. Their efforts have been retarded by many factors, including a lack of ready money, physical exhaustion on the part of the people, and the necessity of maintaining troops in Germany, Austria, Japan, Greece, Palestine, and Java. In addition, the British Isles have been harassed by a series of unfortunate weather freaks including destructive blizzards and a too-rapid thaw which produced floods and crop destruction.

The British people, however, tired and discouraged though they may be, have not given way to despair, but have persevered in their struggle toward recovery. They have already made tremendous progress, particularly in the repair of bomb damage. Everywhere, in London, Coventry, Portsmouth, and other bombed cities, debris has been cleared away, bomb craters have been filled, streets have been repaired, and damaged buildings have been bricked-up. Buildings which were damaged beyond repair have been pulled down and the wreckage has been hauled away. Neat brick walls have been built, wherever necessary, to keep pedestrians from falling into the base-

ments of structures which have been razed to the ground. But, wherever repairs could be made, they have been made. Windows have been replaced, and bulging walls, or gaping holes, have been repaired with bricks, plaster, and concrete.

Despite the bricking-up of bomb damage, there are whole blocks, whole areas of London, Dover, Exeter, and many another British city where every house, every structure has been leveled to the ground. Vast areas in London alone have been subjected to total destruction. Yet, most of London still stands, and several very large apartment houses are being erected in the midst of some of the ruined areas. At the same time, whole rows of new houses are being erected in suburban areas within twenty or thirty miles of the heart of England's biggest city. Similar building programs are being carried out elsewhere in the British Isles, but progress is necessarily slow because of a labor shortage and a serious shortage of building materials.

Britain's industrial plant has not been neglected. Wherever possible, damaged factories have been repaired. Many new factories have been built during or since the war, and numerous munitions plants have been converted to serve the peacetime economy of the country. The steel industry is producing magnificently, and Britain is turning out vast quantities of autos, machine tools, tractors, and other industrial products for export as well as for domestic consumption. Unfortunately, there are some bottlenecks which hamper the productivity of the industrial machine. For one thing, the production of coal is not considered entirely satisfactory, partly due to various human factors, and partly due to lack of proper machinery or to the need for replacement of some of the existing machinery. Likewise, production in some factories is below output goals, due to fatigue on the part of the workers, and due to the acute need for replacement of run-down machinery.

¹ The conclusions in the article are based principally on observations made by the author during a research trip to England, from June to September, 1948.

Repairs have been made, wherever possible, to Britain's transportation system. New locomotives have been built, new rails laid down, and fresh equipment and rolling stock have been put into use. Nevertheless, the strain of the war years has left its mark upon the British railways. There is need for further repairs and a crying need for the replacement of a considerable percentage of the existing equipment and rolling stock. Also, many a bombed and burned-out railway station has yet to be repaired or replaced.

Other parts of Britain's transportation system stand in as much need of new equipment as do the railways. Many a London bus, and many a taxicab, has reached senility. Only herculean efforts on the part of expert mechanics have kept London's buses and taxis going during the last few years. The replacement of run-down equipment is being delayed, whenever possible, in order to give top priority to production of goods for export. However, the problem of replacing Britain's aging buses and taxis must soon be faced, or many a Britisher will soon have to get up an hour or two earlier each morning in order to walk to work.

Millions of tons of British shipping lie upon the bottom of the Atlantic or the Mediterranean. Hence, high priority has been given to the replacement of lost shipping. Tankers, cargo steamers, and passenger ships have been built in considerable numbers since the war. The Cunard Line, for example, can point with pride to the launching of the 34,500 ton liner *Caronia*; the new liner will soon be steaming across the Atlantic.

Despite all the repairs and replacements which have been made, and despite all the achievements of British industry since 1945, it must be emphasized that Great Britain is still facing a grave crisis; much of her struggle for recovery still lies ahead of her. Production of many commodities has surpassed 1938 levels by a wide margin. The export drive has had very considerable success. Huge quantities of British industrial products have been sold overseas. Yet, despite such achievements, Britain still has an unfavorable balance of trade; she is having to import, in 1948, about \$1,100,000,000 more goods than she is able to pay for through her exports! The Marshall

Plan helps to stave off the grim specter of bankruptcy, but the crisis, though postponed, remains to be faced.

The plain fact is that Britain is in a bad way economically. She has to import half of the food which her people eat, and she has to import vast quantities of raw materials to supply her industrial machine. Because of present price levels in the United States, Canada, and other countries from which she purchases large quantities of food, tobacco, and raw materials, Britain finds herself seriously embarrassed. She must export more and more goods, to pay the high prices for her imports, and she must face the constant danger that some kind of economic dislocation or collapse will deprive her of a major part of her export market at any time. In addition, she must face severe competition from the factories of the United States and Canada and from the growing industrial plants of Australia, India, and some of the countries of South America. Under the circumstances, the future of Britain's economy must be viewed with some misgivings.

The British Labor government, in which Sir Stafford Cripps provides the driving force, has an answer to the problem presented by the unfavorable balance of trade and the wartime exhaustion of Britain's foreign credits. The answer has been described by the term "austerity," which in this instance, means just what it seems to mean. The Labor government has maintained, and enforced, strict rationing of food, sweets (candy), petrol, and many other commodities. It has restricted the quantity of tobacco which may be imported annually. And, if the trade balance remains unfavorable, it may be forced to make "austerity" even more austere.

A visitor to England soon learns the meaning of "austerity." He finds that the meat ration for an adult for one week is so limited that it amounts to about as much meat as most adult Americans are accustomed to eat in one day. He learns that eggs, butter, and milk are available only in very limited quantities. He discovers that he can't buy milk at a "milk bar," and that a glass of orange juice is an unheard-of luxury. If he buys several chocolate candy bars in one week, he soon discovers that he has exhausted one month's ration of sweets. If he eats in restaurants, he finds that he is entitled

to order only a certain number of courses; the restaurant is able to sell him only a five shilling (\$1.00) dinner, and he is not allowed to ask for additional courses, or a more expensive meal, even though he is willing to pay more than five shillings for it.

Some readers may infer from the above that the British are facing something just short of starvation. Such is not the case. There is enough to eat. No one is to be seen fainting from hunger in the streets of London or Bristol. But the diet is somewhat drab, and the heavy eater from America is more than likely to leave the table feeling a bit hungry. By and large, the British are getting enough to eat, but only just enough, without any extras, unless they supplement dinner by filling up with buns or cakes at a snack bar or tea shop. In any case, the diet isn't quite properly balanced, so that the vitality of most urban dwellers must be a little below par some of the time. Special attention is given to the diet of children, however, so that their growth, and vitality probably do not lag behind those of the children in the United States or Canada.

Luxuries are strictly rationed, or heavily taxed, or both, and many an item which most Americans have come to think of as a necessity is on the list of luxuries in the United Kingdom. Gasoline is so strictly rationed that most British drivers are able to do only as much driving in two months as most Americans do in a week. Cigarettes are unrationed, but they are so heavily taxed that a package of twenty costs about three shillings and sixpence, or seventy cents in United States currency. Chocolate candy is strictly rationed, and one would have to save his rationing stamps for a month or more to be able to buy a one pound box of chocolates. Alcoholic beverages are very heavily taxed, and, except for beer and ale, are in short supply. Some luxury items have disappeared completely. For example, one can hardly have crumpets with his tea in England today, because crumpets require too much cooking fat, which is in short supply, and too much butter, which is very strictly rationed.

Electricity is among the items which are in short supply. Because of the shortage, British advertisers are not allowed to have lighted displays in their shop windows. Needless to say, there are no flashing signs to be seen anywhere

in Great Britain today. Streets in British cities still have the appearance of being in some kind of wartime dim-out. The dim-out will continue for a number of years, for new electric power plants, now under construction, will not be completed until 1951 and 1952.

Newsprint is another commodity which is in short supply. Most British daily papers have only newsprint enough to produce issues with two sheets, or four pages, all told. Sunday editions are somewhat larger, but they are still lilliputian compared to an ordinary issue of the *New York Times* or the *Washington Post*. There is, of course, nothing in Great Britain comparable to the immense Sunday edition of a paper such as the *New York Times*.

In many other respects, life in Great Britain is hedged in by shortages, rationing, and drabness. Taxes are, in general, much higher than in the United States, and there is a very high purchase tax on most consumer goods in order to discourage the prospective buyer. British economy is geared to meet the demands of the export drive, rather than the demands of the domestic consumer. But, the people don't seem to be bitter or resentful about it. They understand the need to close the gap in the trade balance, and they co-operate faithfully, though not always cheerfully, to make rationing work. They go without luxuries, they pay their high taxes without more than a passing grumble, and they work hard, very hard, to keep the United Kingdom on the road to recovery.

There are, of course, some pessimistic souls who view the struggle as a hopeless one; they want to emigrate to Canada or Australia before their country sinks under the accumulated weight of its many burdens. However, most of the people are determined to see the job through. They have done a magnificent job in repairing bomb damage, and in reconverting from a war economy to a civilian economy. They are engaged in a winning struggle, unless the quickening demands of re-armament upset their plans completely in the next few years. It goes without saying that every gallon of gasoline which goes into the RAF's share of the Berlin air-lift is one gallon less for Britain's civilian economy. It is equally clear that, under the re-armament program which has been forced upon Britain by the worsening inter-

national situation, production for a peacetime economy will have to be somewhat curtailed. Hence, every Briton is following the crisis in East-West relations with deep interest,

knowing that the recovery of his country from the ravages of World War II depends heavily upon the abatement or intensification of the preparations for a possible World War III.

Free Materials for the Social Studies Teacher

NORWOOD M. COLE

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Industrial organizations, governmental agencies, colleges and universities, and other agencies of this nature provide an abundance of free teaching materials to thousands of teachers all over the country. In the social studies this material can be found in vast quantities. However, there are two important considerations which the teacher must face in using these aids effectively. First, the teacher must know where he can find them; and, secondly, he must select those materials which will best fit his particular needs.

The purpose of this article is to indicate sources of free social studies materials. The bibliography is not an exhaustive one by any means, but does include a number of interesting and useful items. All the items listed are not of the same value and should be evaluated in reference to particular needs. The brief explanatory statement about each piece of material will be of some help in selecting the material best suited for a particular unit of work or need to be met.

There are certain points which the teacher should consider when selecting classroom materials, whether they are free or otherwise. First of all, materials should be adaptable in content, format and style to the age and reading level of the group using them. Second, materials should be of sufficient variety in type and presentation to meet individual needs. Third, content should be of such a nature as to contribute to the development of some area of experience or of some needed skill in which pupils and teachers are interested. Fourth, the materials should offer possibilities for extending the interests of boys and girls. Fifth, content of materials must be free from harmful propa-

ganda. For example, overenthusiastic advertising copy will destroy the value of much free material which otherwise contains many useful features.

It is extremely important for each teacher using free materials to realize that the organization or agency distributing them does so because of the advertising value. Materials should be carefully selected with this in mind.

American Arbitration Association, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. distributes:

Blue Book of America Arbitration. 45 pp. Contains a list of members, users and contributors of the organization. Explains the policy of the organization.

Commercial Arbitration Rules. 10 pp.

A Guide To Labor Arbitration Clauses. 12 pp. The why, what, how, where, when, and who of voluntary arbitration clauses in collective bargaining agreements.

Toward Effective Arbitration by J. Noble Braden. 16 pp. A summary of the procedure of the Voluntary Labor Tribunal of the American Arbitration Association, with some suggestions for the use of arbitration in collective bargaining agreements and the preparation and presentation of a dispute to arbitration. Useful teaching units dealing with collective bargaining.

Voluntary Labor Arbitration Rules. 8 pp.

American Automobile Association, Pennsylvania at 17th Street, Washington 6, D. C., distributes:

Bibliography of Traffic Safety Materials. 16 pp.

Excellent listing of traffic safety materials.

Safety-Responsibility Bill. 47 pp. Contains a bill to promote safe driving and to remove the

reckless and financially irresponsible driver from the highway. Appendix includes a number of questions and answers on the ABC of the bill.

American Council on Race Relations, 4901 S. Ellis Ave., Chicago 15, Ill., distributes:

Little Red Schoolhouse Southern Style by Edwin R. Embree. 25 pp. This booklet is concerned with the activities of the Julius Rosenwald Fund's promotion of better education for the school children in the South.

American Forest Products Industries, Inc., 1319 Eighteenth St. N. W., Washington 6, D. C., distributes:

Trees For Tomorrow. A basic text in forest appreciation. Divided into three parts: America's Forest, There Is Magic in Wood, and Growing Tomorrow's Trees. A *Teachers' Manual* is also available.

You Burn Me Up. 8 pp. Deals with forest fire prevention.

The following charts are available: *Where We Grow our Trees*, size 28 x 34 inches, in four colors gives the location of where our leading commercial species grow; *Wood The Most Versatile Servant*, size 16 x 24, shows how wood serves us in many ways; *Products of American Forests*, size 25 x 30 inches, graphically portrays the use of wood today; and *Fire Posters* stress the importance of keeping America green by preventing forest fires.

American Petroleum Institute, 50 West 50th Street, New York 20, N. Y. distributes:

The Burning Rivers. 4 pp. The story of oil in America before the drilling of the Drake Well in 1859. Contains a map of the area in which oil was first discovered. Good for teaching history of the petroleum industry.

Great Grow the Gases. 19 pp. A history of the development of natural gases. Included is a map of the pipe lines in the U. S. Numerous pictures of the contributions of natural gases to society.

Oklahoma, the State that Oil Built. A short history of the development of oil in Oklahoma. Contains a number of pictures which describe the history of oil in graphic style.

Spindletop — A Texas Titan. The story of the

Lucas Well, brought in on January 10, 1901, which started the oil development of Texas. Contains a number of fine pictures portraying early development of Texas oil.

Sunshine In the Rockies. The story of Wyoming oil told in pictures.

Armour and Company, Chicago, Illinois, distributes:

Armour's Food Source Map. Designed to aid in teaching geography and to make clear the importance of agriculture.

Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington 6, D. C. distributes:

Railroad Data. Published semi-monthly. A periodical devoted to presentation of railroad development and problems affecting the transportation industry. Statistics and editorial comments are included.

Railway Literature: A Bibliography.

Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway Company, Public Relations Department, Railway Exchange, Chicago 4, Illinois, distributes: *Conquest*. This booklet contains the pictures and script of Santa Fe's historical slide film "Conquest." The film strip "Conquest" may be borrowed.

The Railroad. An interesting booklet on railroading. Includes a radio play for classroom use called "Railroads and America; They Grew Up Side By Side." A "Teacher's Guide" is also included.

Bell and Howell, 7100 McCormick Road, Chicago 45, Illinois, distributes:

Architect's Visual Equipment Handbook. 30 pp. An excellent little booklet which is designed to aid the teacher in the effective use of motion picture equipment.

Learning Unlimited. 24 pp. This little booklet was prepared to aid teachers in the effective use of motion pictures as a teaching device. Includes sections on preparing to use motion pictures; selection and evaluation, and sources; school-made pictures, and other features. A very useful booklet.

Bell Telephone Laboratories, Inc., 463 West Street, New York 14, N. Y., distributes:

Miracle Men of the Telephone by F. Barrows

Colton. 43 pp. (a reprint from the *National Geographic Magazine* of March, 1947) A story of the development of the Bell Telephone Laboratories and the work of Alexander Graham Bell. Contains a number of fine photographs.

The Magic of Communication. 40 pp. Explains the principle of the telephone and how it made long distance communication possible. Page 40 gives a chronological picture of the development of the telephone in America.

The Telephone in America. 64 pp. Concerned with the people behind your telephone.

Ma Bell's House of Magic by Milton Silverman. (Reprints from the *Saturday Evening Post*) Gives a backstage view of the Bell Laboratories and the remarkable gadgeteers who perfected the telephone, a camera taking 8000 pictures a second, and made movies talk.

The Birth and Babyhood of the Telephone by Thomas Watson. 46 pp. Early history of the telephone. Pages 43-4 contain a telephone chronology. Page 46 gives statistics of Bell System for 1923, 1930, 1940, and 1942.

Better Vision Institutes, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, N. Y., distributes:

The following leaflets contain brief stories about famous men: *David Brewster, Expert in Optics*; *Francis Jenkins, First to Make Movies*; *Gregory Mendel, Augustinian Monk*; *Gutenberg, Father of Printing*; *John Dalton and Color Blindness*; *Leeuwenhoek, Microscope Maker*; *Leonardo Da Vinci, Greatest of Painters*; *Louis Pasteur, Microbe Hunter*; *Marconi, Father of Radio*; *Primitive Man, Warrior and Inventor*; *Rameses II, Secrets of the Sphinx*; *Robert Bunsen and the Spectroscope*; *Roentgen, the First Radiologist*; *Roger Bacon, Master of the Black Arts*; *Dr. Siegmund Crede, Savior of Infants' Eyes*; *Talbot and Daguerre, Inventors of Photography*; *Thomas Edison, Master of Electricity*; *Thomas Young, Master of Mathematics and Optics*; *William Harvey, Founder of Physiology*; *The Wright Brothers, Pioneers of Flight*.

Biloxi Chamber of Commerce, Post Office Box 905, Biloxi, Mississippi, distributes:

Biloxi Is the Nation's Fish Basket. 1 p. Shrimp, oyster and fish from the Gulf of Mexico.

Seven Flags Have Flown Over Biloxi. 1 p. History of the seven nations which have claimed Biloxi.

British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., distributes:

Britain and European Reconstruction. 34 pp.

Britain and Her Dependencies by Lord Hailey. 48 pp. Discusses the problems which face Britain in dealing with her dependencies.

British Foreign Affairs. 58 pp. Excerpts from the speeches of Mr. Bevin, Mr. Eden, Mr. McNeil, Mr. Churchill and Mr. Attlee, January 22 and 23, 1948.

Education In Britain. 34 pp. A general survey.

Labor and Industry In Britain. (a Quarterly Review) Contains articles on International Trade, labor, wage policies, industry, etc. Good material.

The British Constitution by A. L. Goodhart. 64 pp. An excellent scholarly treatment of the British Constitutional system.

The British In India. 31 pp. A historical sketch.

The Political History of Palestine Under British Administration. 40 pp. Memorandum by His Britannic Majesty's Government presented in 1947 to the United Nations Special Committee on Palestine.

The Story of the British Commonwealth and Empire. 49 pp. Illustrated historical sketch.

Towards Self-Government In the British Colonies. 62 pp. An account of the growth of political responsibility and the steps by which democratic institutions are being built up.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

A History of Livestock Raising in the United States, 1607-1860 by James Westfall Thompson. 182 pp. A scholarly treatment of the subject. Contains an extensive bibliography.

Jefferson and Agriculture, compiled by Everett E. Edwards. 92 pp. A source book. Divided into four main divisions: Jefferson's Views on the Nature of the National Economy; Jefferson's Observations on Agriculture in Europe and the United States; Jefferson's Farming Activities; and Jefferson and the Advancement of Agriculture. There is also a very useful index.

Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln and Agricul-

ture. 102 pp. Includes a collection of the observations on agriculture by Washington, Jefferson and Lincoln. Concerned with the place of agriculture in the life of the Nation, their farming experiences, and the contemporaneous agricultural conditions. Everett S. Edwards is responsible for the selections and the introductory notes.

Bureau of Educational Services, 401 Broadway, New York 13, N. Y. distributes:

Petroleum Discovery and Production. This chart pictures the search for and discovery of petroleum. Good for units which are concerned with natural resources.

Petroleum Products. A chart which traces crude oil from the well to finished products.

Contribution of Petroleum to Industry—Farm and Home. 43 pp. This pamphlet traces history of petroleum, place of petroleum in industry, farm and home. Divided into four parts or units. At end of each unit there are included "Round Table Topics" and "Supplementary Study" references for the convenience of the teacher. Four wall charts are designed to accompany this booklet—one for each unit or division.

Chamber of Commerce, P. O. Box 329, Salt Lake City 8, Utah, distributes:

Industrial Utah. An outline of Utah's place in the industrial growth of the West.

The Mining Industry of Utah. 51 pp. An excellent little pamphlet telling the story of Utah's mineral industry.

Wealth and Resources of Utah. The story of Utah's natural resources told by means of photographs.

Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, Washington 6, D. C., distributes:

Communist Infiltration in the United States. 38 pp. Explains the nature of communism and how to combat it. Includes an annotated bibliography.

Federal Grants-in-Aid. 34 pp. An examination of the problem of Federal Government grants of funds to the States for specific purposes such as highways, old-age assistance, schools, etc.

A Program For Sustaining Employment. 32 pp. Discusses problem of what should be done to

prevent unemployment and economic instability.

The American Competitive Enterprise System. 24 pp. A brief description and analysis of the American competitive enterprise system, of the relation between government and business and of the prospect for the years ahead. Includes an annotated bibliography.

Wage Drives and the Outlook for Tomorrow. 20 pp. This report diagnoses the causes of business management-labor troubles and is especially designed to point the path which we should take in order that our free economy may remain free.

Committee for Promotion of Peace, 241 West 97th Street, New York 25, N. Y., distributes:

Falsifiers of History: An Historical Document on the Origins of World War II. 64 pp. This pamphlet challenges the intentions of the State Department publication, *Nazi-Soviet Relations, 1939 - 1941*. First fifteen pages include the "Introduction" written by Frederick L. Schuman. Booklet was originally issued by the Soviet Information Bureau of Moscow and later reprinted in the *New York Times*.

Department of State, Division of Publications, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

The Constitution of the United States of America. 51 pp.

De Vry Corporation, 1111 Armitage Avenue, Chicago 14, Illinois, distributes:

Suggested Bibliography on the Use of Motion Pictures in Education by C. R. Crakes. 4 pp.

Suggestions for Organizing Student Operators' Club for the Projected Teaching Aids Department by C. R. Crakes. 6 pp.

Empire State Observatory, Fifth Avenue, 33rd to 34th Streets, New York, N. Y., distributes:

A Brief History of New York. This booklet contains valuable information on the discovery, purchase and various places of interest in New York.

What Everybody Wants to Know About Empire State. Facts and figures about the world's greatest structure.

World Wonders. This booklet presents an inter-

esting study of some of the outstanding Wonders of the World—Pyramids, Sphinx, Leaning Tower of Pisa, Eiffel Tower, Washington Monument, Empire State Observatory.

Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

Good References Bibliography Series. This is a series of 72 publications which may be had free of charge. The following will be of interest to the social studies teacher: No. 13. "History Teaching" by Annie Reynolds; No. 28. "Education and Social Change" by Katherine M. Cook and Florence E. Reynolds; No. 29. "The Curriculum and Social Change" by Cook and Reynolds; No. 30. "Discussion Groups, Open Forums, etc." by Martha R. McCabe; No. 32. "Visual Aids in Education: Motion Pictures" by Cline M. Koon and Martha R. McCabe; No. 33. "Visual Aids in Education: Lantern Slides, Film Strips, etc." by Ellsworth C. Dent and Martha R. McCabe; No. 34. "Visual Aids in Education: Pictures, Maps, Charts, etc." by Dent and McCabe; No. 55. "Conservation Teaching in Secondary Schools" by Ellen L. Anderson and Effie G. Bathurst; No. 56. "Educating for International Understanding" by Marguerite R. Hyde; and No. 62. "U. S. Government Publications on the Work of the Government."

Fisher Body Craftsmans Guild, General Motors Building, Detroit 2, Michigan, distributes: *An Outline of Transportation.* 70 pp. A brief account of human travel and transport and how they have advanced civilization.

Craft Guilds; Their History and Influence. 24 pp. Craft Guilds from the Middle Ages to the present.

French Embassy—Information Division, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, N. Y. distributes: *Constitution of the French Republic.* 16 pp. The constitution of the Fourth Republic. Excellent for use as source material on France.

Documents: The following documents will prove to be of value to the teacher:

France's Christian Trade Unions and Her Economic Recovery by Gaston Tessier. 3 pp.

The French Socialist Party. 5 pp. A short history of the party.

The French Working Class In Relation to the French Law No. 46-2151. 20 pp. This is the law that provides for the election of the members of the National Assembly. Excellent source material.

Law No. 46-2385 of October 27, 1946. 5 pp. This is the law which provides for the composition and election of the Assembly of the French Union.

Law No. 46-2384 of October 27, 1946. 4 pp. Describes the composition and functioning of the Economic Council of the Fourth Republic.

Law No. 47-1732 of September 5, 1947. 8 pp. This law establishes the general procedures for municipal elections under the Fourth Republic.

Law No. 47-1733 of September 5, 1947. 6 pp. This law establishes the procedure for the elections of the Paris Municipal Council and the General Council of the Seine.

Note On the Position of the French Trade Union Organizations of Trade Union Unity. 2 pp.

Paradox of The French Center. 5 pp. An analysis of the Center in French Political life.

The Popular Republican Movement. 4 pp. A brief history of one of the leading French political parties.

The Supporters of the RPF in the Recent Municipal Elections by Jacques Fauret. 3 pp. An analysis of the municipal elections held in October.

The Third Force on Trial by Jacques Fauret. 2 pp.

Three Major French Speeches. 12 pp. Contains one speech by Robert Schuman and two by General Charles De Gaulle.

France. 213 pp. An excellent little booklet dealing with all phases of French life.

France in Three Invasions. Story told in graphic form.

Renewing France. French recovery from World War II told in graphic form. An excellent chart of the Fourth Republic is also available.

General Motors Corp., Public Relations Department, General Motors Building, Detroit 2, Michigan, distributes:

American Battle for Abundance by Charles Franklin Kittering and Allen Orth. 100 pp. A history of man's methods of producing

- things from his primitive state to modern mass production.
- Electricity and Wheels* by Ralph A. Richardson. 32 pp. The history of the development of electricity from ancient to modern times.
- Metallurgy and Wheels*. 47 pp. The story of men, metals and motors.
- Optics and Wheels*. 32 pp. A story of lighting from the primitive torch to the Sealed Beam Headlamp.
- Transportation Progress*. 54 pp. The history of self-propelled vehicles from earliest times down to the modern motor car.
- Short Stories of Science and Invention*. 126 pp. A collection of radio talks by Mr. Charles F. Kettering.
- The Worker Speaks*. 176 pp. This booklet contains the letters of the top 40 winners of General Motors contest "My Job and Why I Like It."
- Graflex, Inc., 154 Clarissa Street. Rochester 8, N. Y. distributes:
- Great Moments of the War*. Includes some outstanding action shots of the war and describes the camera's role in the war.
- John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Co., P. O. Box 111, Back Bay Post Office, Boston, Mass. distributes:
- George Washington; First President of the United States*. 17 pp. Short sketch of Washington's life.
- Thomas Jefferson; Lover of Liberty*. 17 pp. Short account of the life of Jefferson. Contains a facsimile of Jefferson's original draft of the Declaration of Independence, showing the changes made by Benjamin Franklin and John Adams.
- The Story of the Pilgrims*. 17 pp. Short history of the Pilgrim settlement of New England. Contains a passenger list of the *Mayflower* on the famous voyage.
- A copy of the Declaration of Independence is also available for teachers.
- Lexington Chamber of Commerce, Lexington 73, Massachusetts, distributes:
- Lexington Massachusetts*. The story of what happened in Lexington on April 19, 1775.
- Library of Congress, Information and Publications Office, Washington 25, D.C., distributes:
- The Constitution of the United States, Together with an Account of Its Travels Since September 17, 1787*, compiled by David C. Mearns and Verner W. Clapp. 44 pp. An excellent pamphlet which all American history teachers should own.
- Magna Carta; the Lincoln Cathedral Copy Exhibited in The Library of Congress*. 16 pp. This brochure, prepared by David C. Mearns and Verner W. Clapp, deals with the history of the Lincoln Cathedral copy of the Great Charter.
- 10 Million Readers, 23 Million Books*, by Allan Nevins. 4 pp. (Reprint from *The New York Times Magazine*, October 26, 1947.) A sketch of the last fifty years of the Library of Congress and a brief description of what the library is attempting to do.
- Mississippi Agricultural and Industrial Board, New Capitol Building, Box 849, Jackson, Mississippi, distributes:
- Historic Mississippi*. 3 pp. (mimeographed) A short historical sketch of Mississippi.
- Mississippi: The State of Opportunity*. 51 pp. A brief representation of Mississippi, its people, resources, industries, opportunities, and progress. Includes some useful statistical reports for teachers teaching economic geography of the United States.
- National Association of Broadcasters, 1771 N Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. distributes:
- Advertising in the Public Interest* by Justin Miller. 16 pp. Discusses the legal meaning of the term "public interest" as applied to advertising.
- Program Patterns for Young Radio Listeners* by Dorothy Lewis and Dorothy L. McFadden. 80 pp. Discusses program trends, patterns, foreign station programs, transcriptions, etc. Appendix includes criteria for children's programs.
- Radio Bibliography*. 18 pp. A listing of books and periodicals on all aspects of radio. Includes a section on sources of general information on education by radio.
- National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th Street, New York 20, N. Y., distributes:

1. *The Free Enterprise System*, a reprint of an article by Phelps Adams. 24 pp., illustrated. What it is. How it works. What it has done.
2. *Who Profits From Profits?* 16 pp. Shows the size and significance of profits based upon government figures.
3. *Competitive Enterprise vs. Planned Economy*, a reprint of an address by H. W. Prentis, Jr. 16 pp. Points to individualism as "priceless ingredient."
4. *The American Triangle of Plenty*, reprint of an article by F. C. Crawford. 12 pp. Shows how mass production methods have benefited employees, customers and investors.
5. *People Versus Rabbits*, from an address by Earl Bunting, 1947 NAM President. 12 pp. Compares totalitarianism with the American system.
9. *That New Labor Law*. 24 pp. A brief, factual presentation of the chief provisions of the Labor-Management Act of 1947.
10. *Human Relations and Efficient Production*. 28 pp. A new NAM "score card" for management to aid in evaluating its practices in employer-employee relations. Offered to instructors to provide insight into most advanced industrial relations program.
13. *How Much Government Can You Afford?* 12 pp. An analysis of government fiscal policy, how it affects taxpayers and how taxes affect the stability of the economy—now and in the future.
14. *The Public Be Served*. 24 pp. The story of the NAM; its history, operations and beliefs.

National Defense Committee, D. A. R. Administration Building, 1720 D Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., distributes:

- 10 *Years of Vigilance*. 11 pp. A speech by the Hon. J. Parnell Thomas, Chairman, Committee on Un-American Activities in the House of Representatives. Traces the work of the Committee for the past ten years.
- 100 *Things You Should Know About Communism In the U.S.A.* 29 pp. 100 questions and answers concerning communism in the U.S. The Appendix lists the principal officers and offices of the Communist Party, U.S.A., as of 1947.

Reprints from *National Defense News* include: *Blessings of the American System* by Ira E. Bennett.

George Washington and The Revolution. 5 pp. Contains twelve portraits of Washington and includes an outline course of study of Washington's role as military leader, statesman and private citizen.

Give Thought to the Constitution. 2 pp. An outline course of study on the Constitution.

How to Sell America to Americans by Henry C. Link. 3 pp.

Power of the Great Seal. 2 pp. A brief history of the Great Seal of the U. S.

The Citizen's Responsibility by Adelaide H. Sisson. 2 pp.

National Education Association of the United States, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., distributes:

References on Free and Inexpensive Instructional Aids. 21 pp. A bibliography which lists sources of information on free and inexpensive materials for classroom use. Valuable to all teachers.

National Labor Relations Board, Washington, D. C., distributes:

Labor Management Relations Act, 1947. 30 pp. (80th Congress) This is the amendment to the National Labor Relations Act to provide additional facilities for the mediation of labor disputes affecting commerce, to equalize legal responsibilities of labor organizations and employers, and for other purposes.

Rules and Regulations, Series 5, and Statements of Procedure. 58 pp. Rules, regulations and procedures for carrying out the National Labor Relations Act.

Speeches. The following four speeches (mimeographed) will be of special value to the teacher attempting to deal with "Labor Relations" and the Taft-Hartley Law: "The National Labor Relations Board Today" by Paul M. Herzog; "Remarks of N.L.R.B. General Counsel Robert N. Denham before the Texas Bar Association"; "Remarks of N.L.R.B. General Counsel Robert N. Denham before the Indiana Personnel Association"; "Statement of the National Labor Relations Board before the Joint Congressional Committee on Labor-Management Relations," presented by Paul H. Herzog, Chairman.

Post Office Department, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

A Brief History of the United States Air Mail Service. 5 pp.

A Brief History of the Development of the International Postal Service. 4 pp.

A Brief History of the United States Postal Service. 6 pp.

Official Duties. 7 pp. Explains the official duties of the various units in the Post Office Department.

Your Postal Service. 20 pp. Graphically presents the work of the postal service.

Public Roads Administration, Federal Works Agency, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

Highways of History. 75 pp. The picture story of the improvement of transportation in Colonial America and the United States during the past four centuries. An excellent booklet—pictures are very useful.

Highways in the United States, 1945. 17 pp. Gives an historical sketch of highway development. Excellent for the highway statistics which are given by states.

Standard Oil Company (New Jersey), Room 1626, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., distributes:

A Generation of Industrial Peace by Stuart Chase. 63 pp. The story of how, for some thirty years, men and management of companies affiliated with Standard Oil Company (New Jersey) have worked together in harmony and understanding based on philosophy of mutual respect.

State of Alabama, Records and Reports, Montgomery 5, Alabama, distributes:

This Is Alabama. 48 pp. This is a booklet prepared to answer inquiries for general information about the State of Alabama. Tells about resources, products, government, people and history of the state.

William Walker. 1 p. Story of Walker's preparation for the filibustering expedition to Nicaragua in 1858.

St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*, Circulation Department, 1111 Olive Street, St. Louis 1, Missouri, distributes:

Building The Constitution by Irving Dilliard.

33 pp. An interesting little booklet which presents the history of the Constitutional Convention in the form of a newspaper account—even includes dated headings and headlines.

Symposium on Freedom of the Press. 76 pp. Contains expressions by 120 representative Americans from many walks of life.

Stromberg-Carlson Company, 302 North Goodman Street, Rochester 3, N. Y. distributes:

The Blackboard of the Ear. 6 pp. Why sound systems are important in the school program. Includes a listing of sources of recorded educational material.

The Sound System In Education. 5 pp. A guide for school administrators, principals, teachers, and others in the use of the sound system.

The American Legion, National Headquarters, 777 N. Meridian Street, Indianapolis 6, Indiana, distributes:

Know Your America. 64 pp. A course of study in Americanism. Includes eight units: The American Way; The Flag of the United States; The Declaration of Independence; The Constitution of the United States; Citizenship; Americanism Briefs for Each Month; Presidents of the United States; and Americanism Treasures.

Flag of the United States. How to display it and how to respect it.

The News Letter, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio, distributes:

The News Letter (Published monthly except during June, July, August, and September.) This periodical brings information to the teacher about the radio, the press, and motion picture as teaching devices. Extremely valuable because of the listing of sources of teaching aids. A charge of twenty-five cents is made for placing your name on the mailing list of *The News Letter*.

The University of Nebraska, Extension Service Agricultural College, Lincoln, Nebraska, distributes:

Betsy Ross, Maker of the Flag by Pattie Ellicott. 3 pp. Brief sketch of the life of Betsy Ross.

History and Use of Our Flag. 8 pp.

(Only one copy of each of the above pamphlets free to non-residents of Nebraska.)

The Western Union Telegraph Company, 60 Hudson Street, New York 13, N. Y., distributes: *The Story of Western Union*. (mimeographed) Short history of Western Union, Western Union today, how Western Union operates and a suggested bibliography on the telegraph industry.

Time Educational Bureau, *Time and Life* Building, Rockefeller Center, New York 20, N. Y., distributes:

Better Teaching Through the Use of Current Materials prepared by Lucien Kinney and Reginald Bell of the Stanford University School of Education. 24 pp. Report of an 18-month study to see how current materials such as weekly and monthly magazines, daily newspapers, pamphlets, films, etc., could be used more effectively in class work—and to determine their advantages to all concerned—teachers, students, etc.

Union Pacific Railroad, Department of Traffic, Portland 5, Oregon, distributes:

Union Pacific Railroad. 30 pp. A brief history of the Union Pacific.

Along the Union Pacific Railroad. 94 pp. Short sketches about the towns and historic sites along the Union Pacific Railroad.

U. S. Coast Guard, Public Information, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

United States Coast Guard Bibliography. 22 pp. Books and magazine articles on the Coast Guard.

United States Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

Education For Citizenship. Educational requirements for naturalization.

Selected Bibliography on Citizenship Education, Cultural Backgrounds, and Assimilation of the Foreign Born in the United States. 29 pp.

Social and Economic Aspects of Immigration. A selected list of references. 2 pp.

United States Department of the Interior, Office of Indian Affairs, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

A Pattern for Indian Education. Describes the type of education needed by the Indian.

Indians Are Citizens! 10 pp. Designed to inform Americans that the Indian is a citizen of our

country.

Indians at Work. A bimonthly journal on Indians and their work.

Indians in the War. 54 pp. Stories of the part played by Indians in winning the war.

Location of Principal Tribes by State and Agency.

Navajo. 6 pp. (Excerpt from the Handbook of American Indians, Bulletin 30, Bureau of Ethnology, Washington: 1907-1910) A short sketch on the Navajo, his tribal organization, religion, etc. Included is a short bibliography on the Navajo.

The Public Share in Indian Assimilation. 16 pp. Points out the public responsibility in the Indian's problems.

Story of the Indian Service. 11 pp. An address by the Hon. William A. Brophy, Commissioner of Indian Affairs.

Ten Years of Tribal Government. 45 pp. Tribal government described. Also includes a copy of the "Indian Reorganization Act," 73rd Congress.

United States Tariff Commission, Washington 25, D. C., distributes:

The Tariff and Its History. 109 pp. A collection of general information on the subject.

The Tariff: A Bibliography (1934) 980 pp. Selected references.

Reciprocal Trade: A Current Bibliography. Third Edition, 1937. 282 pp. Supplement 129 pp.

Reciprocal Trade: A Current Bibliography, a Supplement to the Third Edition, 1940. 232 pp. Selected references.

Weber Costello Company, 12th and McKinley, Chicago Heights, Illinois, distributes:

How to Use the Chalkboard. 8 pp. Hints on the most effective way to use the chalkboard. Based on experience of successful instructors.

Westinghouse Electric Corporation, 306 Fourth Avenue, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, distributes:

George Westinghouse: His Life and His Achievements. 36 pp. A brief life of Westinghouse interestingly written.

Men of Science. 45 pp. Fifteen stories of scientific advances and the men who helped make them.

Teaching Aids. A bibliography of teaching aids.

The Problem of Crime in the United States

ALBERT H. BURROWS

Northern Michigan College of Education, Marquette, Michigan

The estimated yearly economic cost of crime to the citizens of the United States is \$15,000,000,000. No one has ever attempted to estimate the cost in suffering. The first step in treatment is a scientific diagnosis and understanding of the actual conditions. Thus, it is appropriate to state some of the facts concerning the extent of crime. Also, before a disease can be treated the causes or inciting factors must be known. Therefore, it is necessary to know the causes of crime. But, the interest in crime is not primarily to *understand* or to isolate the *causes*, but rather to *effect the cure*, i.e., the treatment of crime. To treat and cure crime is to arrive at social control which is the ultimate objective of all social science study, and indeed of all educational systems and of the major social institutions.

CRIMINAL BY DEFINITION

In order to have a common ground of understanding it is best to give a definition and to state a point of view. First, what do the words crime and criminal mean? A crime is any violation of the criminal law. A criminal, sociologically speaking, is any one having committed an offense against the welfare of the social group. But, legally speaking, a criminal is anyone who commits an act in violation of the criminal law and in addition is caught and convicted. Typically, when we talk about criminals we have in mind the legal definition. This convicted group may or may not be typical of all those who have violated the law. Also, this latter group of law violators may or may not be typical of those who have offended against the social welfare. Furthermore, our notions of malbehavior both sociological and legal are relative and therefore subject to change. For example, fifteen years ago it was illegal to sell a commodity which today is sold openly and legally in public places in nearly every city in the United States.

The point of view or frame of reference of anyone who attempts to understand human

behavior is that the causes are isolable and understandable. In other words, crime is a social disease just as smallpox is a physical disease. Therefore, the point of view of the social scientist is that the criminal should be understood and treated as one who is socially sick.

PERTINENT QUESTIONS ABOUT CRIME

Let us consider and answer in order several pertinent questions relative to crime: How does the crime rate in the United States compare with that of other countries? Unfortunately, we have the distinction of ranking first or highest. In 1938, the last pre-war year in Europe, the United States had a murder and manslaughter rate relative to population eleven times higher than that of England and Wales. Our aggravated assault and robbery rates and other serious crimes were about equally high and equally greater than those of England and Wales.

YOUTHFULNESS OF CRIMINALS

What is the mode or most common age of those committing crime? Depressing as it may be, it must be stated that in 1943 when the males in the late "teens" and early "twenties" were away during the war, males 17 years of age committed more crimes than any other age group. The females committing crimes during the same years were one year older, that is, 18 years of age. During 1947 the most common age of male criminals mounted to 21: for females it had increased to age 22.

MALES THE OFFENDERS

Males are many times more criminal than are females. In 1939 there were thirteen times as many male offenders as there were female offenders. However, female crime rates have increased so greatly during World War II that for the first half of 1945 there were only six times as many males as there were females arrested. The 1946 data, however, showed that the male was attaining some of his pre-war "superiority" relative to crime and was 8.4 times as criminal as the female. In 1947 the

male was arrested 8.7 times more frequently than the female. Thus it appears that the female crime rate will continue to be higher than it was before the war both absolutely and also relatively to the male. However, the male still leads by a ratio of nearly 9 to 1.

Why are males from six to thirteen times more lawless than females? By a process of elimination the answer cannot be found in heredity or instinct because males and females have genes from the same source, and the same original nature common to all humanity. I have previously stated that the answer may be found partially in the differing sex biology of the male and the female. "First, let us consider the four wishes that are fundamental to everyone—the wish for security, the wish for response, the wish for new experience, and the wish for recognition—of these four wishes the female prefers security, while the male is impelled more by the wish for new experience. This preference for security by the female may be due partially to her more precarious sex position in reproduction and partially to her anabolic metabolism. However, the major reasons for the lower rate of female lawlessness are probably to be found in the social environment."¹ Evidence that the social situation is causal to the crime rate of the sexes may be deduced from the fact that females have the lowest crime rates relative to men in the Orient and those sections of the world where the female is most submerged socially. Also, the female crime rate most closely approaches the male rate in the Occident and especially the United States where women have the most freedom.

CRIMINALS NOT IMPORTED

Are immigrants and foreigners responsible for our high crime rate? Contrary to popular opinion, immigrants are far less criminal than natives. For example, in 1934 native born males were sentenced to state and federal prisons and reformatories at a rate 2.9 times higher than that of foreign born males; and native born women had a sentence rate to such institutions 1.7 higher than foreign born women.

But, are not the native born children of immigrant parents responsible for a dispropor-

tionate amount of our crime? Again, contrary to popular, and to some allegedly scholarly, opinion the answer is in the negative. The children of immigrants are possibly slightly less criminal than the children of the native born. For example, in 1933 data for over half of our states showed the commitment rate for the sons of immigrants to be 4.6 per cent lower than for the sons of native fathers in the same states.

However, the children of immigrants are much more criminal than their parents. In 1933 in the twenty-six states already mentioned the sons of immigrants were 3.5 times more criminal than were their fathers.

NATIONALITY AND CRIME

Nationality, i.e., country of origin has an important bearing on crime. The commitment rate for the children of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe is 2.2 times that of the children of parents from northern and western Europe. Children of the Welsh show the lowest rate and the Swedes the next lowest; while the children of the Spaniard, the Greek, and the Italian have the highest rates. Undoubtedly this can be explained in terms of conflict of cultures. The children of the north and west European immigrants live in a familiar environment and nationalistic mores of the immigrant group not greatly different from that of the United States as a whole. But the national culture of the south and east European immigrant is quite unlike the culture prevailing in the United States. Therefore, parents from southern and eastern Europe are in conflict with the prevailing culture. Thus, the children are not accepted fully into the prevailing culture of the United States and yet they are in conflict with the culture of their parents. Indeed, they are marginal youths suspended between two cultures and not fully members of either.

HIGH NEGRO CRIME RATE

Negroes have a high crime rate, statistically speaking. In 1937 the rate of arrests of Negroes to whites was 2.7 times higher for Negroes than for whites. The Negro rate was lower than the white rate for only the offenses of forgery, counterfeiting, and driving while intoxicated.

Do these data indicate that the biology of race is responsible for a high rate of Negro criminality? There are adequate explanations of a non-racial character for the high rate of Negro con-

¹ Albert H. Burrows, "The Problem of Juvenile Delinquency," *The Journal of Educational Sociology* (Feb., 1946), p. 384.

flict with the legal authorities. The Negro as a group belongs to the poor economic class in which the statistics of crime are high, the Negro is relatively illiterate due to poor schools, the Negro does not have influence to "fix" any charge brought against him, and the law enforcement officials are mostly white in that portion of the United States where most of the black Americans live. Furthermore, from a practical viewpoint, there is little possibility of the Negro securing redress of grievance in the courts of the South. Finally, he cannot afford to bring suit and, also, white juries invariably find that justice is on the side of the one with a white skin. Therefore, insofar as the Negro receives justice he must secure it largely by extra-legal means executed by himself.

POSTWAR CRIME WAVE

What about a crime wave in the United States? There had been no crime wave for more than a decade ending in 1944. The Federal Bureau of Investigation has comparative figures for offenses known to police in cities of over 25,000 from 1931-44. These data show that when the yearly average for the years 1931-34 is compared to the yearly average for the years of 1940-44 there is a decrease of from 12 per cent to 39 per cent in the following crimes: murder, manslaughter, burglary, robbery, and auto theft. There is, however, an increase of 15 per cent in larceny and theft, 23 per cent in aggravated assault, and 82 per cent in rape. And when 1931 is compared to the year 1944 the increase in rape is 111 per cent, which is certainly magnitudinous. However, for all crimes the rate was less toward the end of the fourteen-year period. But it seems almost inevitable that the war would have caused many of these offenses to decrease during the war years. For example, we are not surprised that car thefts decreased by 38.6 per cent when most of the young males were in military services, and tires and gasoline were scarcely available. However, there has been a marked increase in crime during the postwar years, an increase which certainly is a major *ripple* if not a *crime wave*. Indeed, rape has the proportions of a *tidal wave*.

There seems to be little doubt but that crime among the war adults has increased some, and also, that among those who were maturing during the war the rate has increased and will

probably remain high for several years. Data show that the upward trend in crime rates continued through 1946 and essentially maintained the higher rate throughout 1947. The urban rate in 1946 surpassed the 1945 figure by 7.4 per cent and the rural rate showed an increase of 14.1 per cent. The 1947 rural crime rate was 7.1 per cent higher than during 1946. However, urban rates showed a decrease of 5.1 per cent. The "over-all" 1947 crime rate remained substantially the same as in 1946 as the total number of serious crimes only shrank from 1,685,203 to 1,665,110.

Every typical day of 1946, 36 people were murdered, 185 were feloniously assaulted, and 33 women were violated; also, during the same typical day there occurred 172 robberies, 981 burglaries, 630 auto thefts and 2,580 larcenies. In 1947 more than three serious crimes were committed every minute and with the passing of every hour 12 persons were raped, feloniously assaulted or killed, and 49 were victims of robbery or burglary, and 21 citizens had their cars stolen, and 108 miscellaneous larcenies were committed.

When the 1947 urban crime rate is compared with a 1938-41 average crime rate, the data show an increase of 48.3 per cent in the rape rate and an increase of 59.5 per cent in aggravated assault, 15.4 per cent increase in murder, 15.3 per cent increase in burglary, 14.6 per cent increase in robbery, 2.6 per cent increase in larceny, 2.1 per cent increase in negligent manslaughter, and a 1.9 per cent increase in auto theft in 1947 over the average for the prewar period mentioned. Thus, it is evident that a greatly accelerated rate of criminal behavior is following in the wake of World War II.

CAUSES OF POSTWAR CRIME WAVES

To the sociologist this postwar acceleration of the crime rate is no surprise. Social disorganization has always followed wars. A people cannot be immersed in an actual or vicarious blood bath for years and then suddenly remove all trace of the "Damned spot!" Furthermore, the populace is led during a war by the ecstatic experience of being an important part of a great cooperative endeavor for which they are privileged to struggle and sacrifice. People receive recognition and honor for their contribution to the collectivist cause. Individualism and selfish desire for gain are

condemned. Status is achieved by making the greatest contribution to the common goal—defeating the enemy. Therefore, crime is reduced. But, with the end of a war, the great social objective is gone. Status can no longer be won by sacrifice for a great common cause. Selfishness again becomes rampant. Status is now won by pelf and not by glory. Never was William James more profound than when he stated the tragic need for a peacetime “moral equivalent for war.” Could such a “moral equivalent” be realized in a great mass movement for world peace, or in seeking an economy of plenty, or in providing medical facilities for all, or even in brotherhood and democratic practices toward Negroes and Jews, then the people of the United States would not need to sink to the low moral level which characterized the post-World War I era, when crime, immorality, the jazz age, Red baiting, and Ku Klux Klanism were characteristic of a wish frustrated and goalless society.

THE ECOLOGY OF CRIME

An analysis of the ecology of crime shows that social maladjustment is environmentally conditioned. We have already noted that there is an ecological explanation of crime among the immigrants—those from one part of Europe committing one rate of crime and those from another part having a different rate of crime. The ecological influences on crime can be illustrated in the United States. For example, in 1937 in the New England states only one person per 100,000 was a victim of murder and/or non-negligent homicide, but in the East South Central states the rate was 8 per 100,000. For these same two areas other rates were as follows: robbery 1 and 7, aggravated assault 1 and 9, auto theft 2 and 3, and the rate of all offenses was 1 for the New England and 7 for the East South Central region. The mountain and Pacific areas were highest for auto theft, having a rate of 8 and 9 respectively per 100,000.

THE ECOLOGY OF RURAL URBAN CRIME

A major ecological determinant of crime can be illustrated by comparing the rural with the urban crime rates. Crime, statistically speaking, and for quantitative and comparative purposes we are limited to the statistics, is largely an urban phenomenon. However, as the rural areas become “urban” their crime rates are

increasing. The rural areas show low crime rates in spite of their low economic position relative to per capita wealth. For the nation as a whole the criminals come from the economically poorer classes, but the rural areas are poor and yet their crime rate is low. However, the explanation probably is that it is not poverty as such that causes crime but poverty side by side with riches. It is the disparity in wealth and not wealth *per se* that is causal to crime. If all are wealthy or if all are poor the crime rate is not particularly affected, but where some are in penury and others in opulence then the attempt of the former to emulate the latter appears to cause a high rate of crime against property. Incidentally, over 90% of all crimes are for some form of stealing. In the rural areas all are on a low economic level and there is not the mad race to “keep up with the Joneses” which is prevalent in the urban areas. Then, too, the rural people have a homogeneous culture whereas the city culture is heterogeneous. The rural person is not subjected to conflicting cultural patterns, neither is his culture nearly so dynamic or subject to the rapid change of the city culture. Rural folkways, mores, and values change slowly and therefore can be used as a moral anchor by the ruralite; but the moral standards and values are fluctuating so rapidly in the city that the urbanite has nothing dependable to which he can anchor his behavior standards and values.

“The best example of the ecological environment is found in the studies of Clifford Shaw in the city of Chicago. Mr. Shaw found that as different racial and/or nationality groups passed through the interstitial areas their delinquency rates were very high, but as they became more affluent and moved out of the moral cesspools found in the interstitial areas then their delinquency rates declined. This was repeated again and again as different nationality groups passed through these same areas.”²

RACE AND BIOLOGY IN RELATION TO CRIME

The biological emphasis as a crime determinant is being featured less and less by the better scholars. Cesare Lombroso in 1872 started the positive school of penologists. He was the predecessor of the phrenologists of today. He discovered, so he thought, that criminals had

² Albert H. Burrows, *op. cit.*

the following characteristics: "outstanding ears, abundant hair, a sparse beard, enormous frontal sinuses and jaws, a square and projecting chin, and broad cheek bones . . . in fact a type resembling the mongolian and sometimes the Negro." Goring devastated Lombroso's thesis, but many people today think they can tell by some anatomical feature whether or not one is of a criminal type.

Those who explain crime in terms of anatomy are of the same type as those who explain it in terms of race. We have recently exterminated some vicious individuals in Europe who explained all virtues and vices in terms of race. Unfortunately, they had intellectual support from some scholars, other than reputable social scientists, who followed in the Lombrosian pathway. However, the best scholarship is in agreement with the true American emotion in not making crime a function of race or of anatomy. Indeed, no one is born such that he has to become a criminal; and no one is born such that he cannot be made to become a criminal.

TREATMENT OF CRIME

Let us now consider the treatment of crime very briefly. Historically, *homo homines lupus est* has been well illustrated in the punishment of criminals. The criminal has been killed by being drowned, burned, flayed, impaled, beheaded, suffocated, buried alive, boiled in oil, broken on the wheel, starved, hanged, electrocuted, asphyxiated, etc. "The Persian general, Mithridates, was encased in a coffin-like box, from which his head, hands, and feet protruded through holes made for that purpose; he was fed with milk and honey, which he was forced to take, and his face was smeared with the same mixture; he was exposed to the sun, and in this state he remained for seventeen days, until he had been devoured alive by insects and vermin, which swarmed about him and bred within him."³

As late as 1780 there were 240 capital offenses in England. That such cruelty is not preventive of crime was well illustrated in England. The pickpockets made a practice of flocking to the many hangings of those convicted members of their craft and there picking the pockets of the spectators. In the United States,

Michigan is one of the six states that does not have capital punishment, and yet the Michigan crime rate is lower than the criminal rates for the adjoining states which still practice such vengeance or retribution.

In the treatment of crime and criminals the old philosophies of retribution or vengeance, expiation of the Gods, satisfaction of the moral law, etc., are giving way today to different theories. No modern criminologist or penologist believes in punishment as an end in itself. Protection of society and reformation of the offender are the goals today. The best penologists now think of themselves as exponents of the best psychological and educational methods applied to individuals who are socially sick and in need of a socialized treatment that will restore their self-respect, develop their will power for self-direction and self-control, and cause them to enjoy decent rather than indecent society. Truly, the modern penologists are character educators engaged in the process of transforming anti-social behavior patterns and attitudes into desirable and socialized life patterns.

The penal system, or more accurately, the forty-nine penal systems should be transformed into genuinely reformatory systems. The enlightened administrators need greater and more enlightened support from the citizens and the unenlightened administrators should be replaced. There should be fewer large institutions and more of a manageable size. There is a need for more prison farms and honor camps. Furthermore, in a truly preventive correctional program we would need to extend into every town and urban school district the nursery school and visiting teacher programs. We need more adequate facilities and services at the command of the juvenile courts. There is need for state-wide scientific juvenile and adult probation systems. There is need for a state clearing house of experts for offenders and a completely indeterminate sentence. There is need for more self-government and work opportunities for those in process of correction. And certainly, the citizens should see that the released prisoner has a fair chance.

THE AGE AND THE OUTLOOK OF A SOCIETY

It is undeniable that the crime problem is of momentous proportions and of vital concern in the United States. We need to attack it both from the individual reformation point of view

³ Frederick H. Wines, *Punishment and Reformation* (New York: Crowell, 1895), p. 70.

and from the broad social viewpoint of correcting as many of the social causative factors as possible. The crime rate of the United States will continue high until a more mature social order has time to develop. The rapidity of change, the mobility of the people, the individualistic tradition from the frontier, the spirit of exploitation, the get-rich-quick type of Horatio Alger success psychology, the great inequality combined with the professed equality, the mad competitive scramble for the social status that is awarded to pecuniary success, and finally, the get-something-for-nothing spirit of the shyster and speculator so prevalent among the uppers (as Lloyd Warner characterizes the pillars and titans of a society), provide an environment setting that fosters crime. However, if we were to spend a fraction of the money in genuine prevention and treatment that we do on aimless punishment we could greatly reduce the crime rate. There is an urgent need for the establishment of adequate social controls in our secondary or touch-and-go type of society. These controls would necessitate much more wholesome and directed and non-commercial recreational and social facilities as well as a thorough and scientifically conceived and formulated plan of prevention and correction by a thoroughly trained personnel down to the last prison guard and police sergeant.

FUNCTIONS OF AN INSTITUTION FOR OFFENDERS

A prison has only two functions: first, to reform and make acceptable citizens of all those who will later be free men; and, second, to hold in satisfactory custody all those who will never again be free men. This latter group should be treated humanely and should be self-supporting, but the problem of effective reform is eliminated by definition. The former group constitutes the challenge to our best sociological knowledge. I shall analyze the problem from the viewpoint of assimilation into the in-group.

ASSIMILATION INTO THE IN-GROUP

The major task of juvenile homes, prisons, and other "educational" institutions is to cause the individuals therein to be assimilated into the culture of the dominant *in-group* of which the warden, superintendent, judge and/or teacher are members and official representatives. Those who are in any way responsible for correction of the offender have the problem of

causing him to be "weaned away" from a misbehaving minority *out-group* and to become a member of the dominant *in-group*. Thus, for example, a judge in a criminal case should be able to say truthfully and realistically to a prisoner: "You have been a member of a group which from our dominant *in-group* point of view is an undesirable *out-group*. Therefore, I am going to remove you from the companionship of this undesirable *out-group* for a period of time and am going to place you in the company and under the supervision of a select group of persons chosen from our dominant *in-group*. During the time you will be favored with the companionship of these select persons, I trust that they will make the way of life of our *in-group* so pleasant, challenging, and attractive to you that you will learn to love and practice the mores of our *in-group* and will never again be attracted to the unsocial behavior of the *out-group*. I trust that by the end of this period of enforced association with these select persons you will have been so thoroughly imbued with the habits, standards, folkways, and ideals of our dominant *in-group* that the mal-practices of the *out-group* will forever be repulsive to you."

NO PLACE FOR PUNISHMENT AS PUNISHMENT

Yes, indeed, the problem of reform, just as the problem of all education, is to assimilate the one to be reformed into the way of life of the group in power. There is no place for punishment for the sake of punishment in such a program. The reformee must be incorporated into the way of life of the reformer. Such incorporation requires the cooperation and psychological assent of the reformee. Such cooperation can be secured through fairness, honesty, and a sympathetic understanding which places much responsibility for improvement on the self-directive activities of the reformee. The time is urgent for reformers to learn that the will power necessary for decent living in a free society can never be learned by an ordering and forbidding lock-step type of technique wherein the reformee is not allowed to make a single decision for himself. Our "reformation" officials still have much to learn from the work of Thomas Mott Osborne. Self-direction in the democratic way of life is the goal. But, democracy must be learned by practice. Autocracy,

no talking rules, the lock-step type of ordering and forbidding technique with no participation in self-government will never develop will power and the necessary self-discipline for functioning as free men in a free society.

The "reformation" officials must learn that the reformation process is primarily one of shifting the reformee's loyalty from one group to another group. The proverb "There is honor among thieves" takes cognizance of this group loyalty. The problem is to assure the reformee that the response and recognition which he previously received from the "bad" minority *out-group* can be secured just as thoroughly from the "good" dominant *in-group*. His loyalty can be transformed to the conforming group when he is assured that he is fully accepted therein. Such an *assimilation* process can neither be forced nor hurried and requires an emotional acceptance on the part of the reformee which demands a *quid pro quo* on the part of the reformer group. The problem of the reformation of criminals can never be solved by the current prevailing penal, rather than reformatory, techniques.

THE FUNDAMENTAL WISHES

The major task of American society is to make it more readily possible for every citizen to achieve fulfillment of the fundamental *wishes*. I have previously elaborated this view as follows:

The late Albion W. Small of the University of Chicago represented individuals as motivated by three desires, the desire for football, beefsteak, and a mate. W. I. Thomas presented the following four fundamental wishes: The wish for security, new experience, response, and recognition. It is the latter one which I shall discuss. The wish for recognition, or football, expresses itself in a competitive struggle for status. It is commonly called "keeping up with the Joneses." To achieve recognition and status, individuals resort to many and diverse devices. College students wear dirty, erstwhile white shoes, drink some liquor and proceed to act as though they were totally soused, act sophisticated and blasé, and the girls attempt to prove the emancipation by aping the petty vices of the males. The males proceed to "tree sit" or see who can swallow the greatest num-

ber of live gold fish, or have the flashiest painted rattletrap of an ancient horseless buggy, etc., *ad nauseam*. Some of them turn to more constructive and profitable activities. Some are able to excel in scholarship, some in singing or instrumental music, some in drama, some in forensics, and some in football, baseball, basketball, track, boxing, or even the effeminate ping-pong and/or golf.

Yes, each must receive recognition and status by fair means or foul, i.e., through constructive and socially useful channels or by debilitating and socially undesirable techniques

Our penal and reformatory institutions are filled with those who were unable to achieve recognition by socially acceptable methods. Thus, defeated in the attempt to achieve recognition by socially accepted methods of competition they turned to viciousness and crime to attract the coveted recognition. This fundamental desire must be furnished various and diverse means of satisfaction. Thus, on the sociological plane, one of the major functions of competitive athletics and games—and they are all competitive—is to give those participating therein a chance to shine.

One of the greatest impediments to the progress of the Chinese people was that they had not developed competitive games and therefore withdrew into the opium dens to receive their recognition in a fantastic opium induced world in which each could receive the recognition and status he desired.⁴

A MORAL EQUIVALENT FOR WAR

Yes, it is true, that no one is born such that he has to become a criminal. It is within the social order that any one becomes a saint or a sinner and it is within the power of a society to develop each succeeding generation in the likeness of whichever type it desires, if it is willing to pay the cost of setting the social environment stage properly and adequately.

The "get tough" policy of the "machine gun school of criminology" has failed. Today some two-thirds of those convicted for committing crime have been in penal institutions previously. The graduates of these allegedly reformatory

⁴ Albert H. Burrows, "Competition in Forensics," *The Forensic* (March, 1941). pp. 76-81.

institutions have not been effectively treated. This does not mean that there is any place for "sob sisters" and "convict coddlers." There is no opportunity for the old ineffective "get tough" school to say to the modern scientific criminologist, "Instead of weeping over the criminals, go weep over the graves of their victims." The social scientist is the realist and the "get tough" exponent is the romancer in this instance. The trouble with the "get tough" procedure is that it doesn't reform and yet a very small percentage of those convicted are held for life. Therefore, in order to protect society at large, we must treat the prisoner in a manner that will

reform him rather than bestialize him. His will-power and self-directive ability must be fostered. He must learn how to achieve status and recognition in an acceptable fashion. His sense of self-respect must be developed rather than destroyed. If we persist in punishing the prisoner instead of treating and curing his social malady, then we, and not the convict, do the most suffering after the prison doors swing out and he is released without being cured. Crime and the criminal are challenging America. Possibly a mass movement for character development and crime prevention could prove to be the needed "moral equivalent for war."

Sociological Role of Government in Higher Education

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One of the most interesting historical trends in American education has been the increasing role of government in the educational system.

The Colonial pattern of education was similar to the European system; that is, education itself was largely religious in nature. The colonists believed that their most important duty in this world was to prepare for the next world. Long after the schools were removed from church domination the emphasis on religious training remained, hence the classical curriculum of the Latin Grammar Schools.

The first schools in this country were also undemocratic in nature. A boy who desired to learn reading and writing had to pay for that learning, usually in a private Dame school run by some woman in her home. Even the majority of these boys never went on to the Latin Grammar Schools since most of them could not afford it.

The question has often been asked. "Why was the matter of education omitted from the Constitution?" The answer seems to be that few of the men in the Constitutional Convention were sympathetic to the idea of free general education, since most of them were products of aristocratic education and private tuition. Moreover, the Convention was primarily concerned with establishing a workable government

for the states, and education and other "minor" problems were left for future solution.

Well into the first quarter of the nineteenth century educators themselves were by no means convinced of the desirability of free education. "To open the college courses to all who applied," said President Day of Yale, "would expose the institution to the peril of degenerating into a mere gymnasium or academy."

Although by and large public education in secondary and high schools became fairly well established in the nineteenth century, the colleges—at least for the first three quarters of the century—were enmeshed in a state of partial culture lag. The introduction of vocational and technical courses into the curriculum was widely opposed.

Perhaps the most decisive factor in the "destratifying" of American higher education was the passage of the Morrill Act in 1862, authorizing the land grant colleges. Under this measure, signed by Abraham Lincoln (President Buchanan had vetoed the Bill), 30,000 acres of land were given to each state for each Congressional representative. Fifty-one states and territories have been the beneficiaries, although most of the colleges have changed the original name of "College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts" to "State College." At present there are

some sixty-nine land grant institutions, seventeen of which are for Negroes.

Since the Morrill Act, several additional acts have been passed, designed to aid the state colleges financially, the latest being the Bankhead Jones Act of 1935. Among other acts are the Purnell Act, the Hatch Act, the Adams Act, the Smith-Lever Act, and the Capper-Ketcham Act.

In addition to the above laws the government has granted considerable amounts for various specialized phases of education such as agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, etc., and in 1940 nearly \$75,000,000 was allocated under the National Youth Administration to help worthy students to stay in school.

With respect to the increasing role of government in education, Benjamin Fine says:

Within the last half century the role of the land grant colleges in this country has grown by leaps and bounds. Disregarding the influence of the traditional liberal arts colleges, the federally supported institutions of higher education have taken the lead in combining realism with culture.¹

There are many, however, who decry the fact of increasing governmental control, believing that such a trend can only lead to centralized control of all education.

The latest attempted role of government in education was begun in 1946 at which time President Truman appointed a Commission on Higher Education. The Committee was composed of twenty-eight civic and educational leaders, outstanding in their respective fields. The Committee's *Report* has recently been released, with far-reaching suggestions. The theme of the *Report* is "education for all," especially with respect to higher education; that is, the Committee feels that even though this country now has its greatest college enrollment, a large gap exists between those who actually reach college and those who could benefit from some form of higher education.

The Committee would plan for a minimum college enrollment of 4,600,000 by 1960. To meet this figure the Committee believes that from now on publicly supported colleges and universities must play a greater part in the expansion program, and as a means the recom-

mendation is made whereby the number of community colleges is increased and their activities greatly enlarged. In New York a plan of this kind is already being considered.

It is not the purpose of this paper to evaluate this intended program. If adopted—in whole or in part—the program would probably be administered by the U. S. Office of Education. This office was created by law in 1867 in response to a nationwide program against illiteracy, and represents in itself another link in the chain of governmental participation.

While no evaluation will be attempted, the Committee's program cannot help focusing attention on what is perhaps the most widely discussed topic in educational circles: what is the *function* of the college?

Stated in the traditional form the controversy hinges on the question, "Should we advocate education for all, or education for the few?" Advocates of the latter point of view (Adler, Hutchins, Barr, et. al.) argue for an education divorced from the practical aspects of making a living. Advocates of the former viewpoint (following the line of Franklin, Mann, and Dewey) believe that the curriculum should contain courses that relate to everyday community living.

Dr. Hutchins defines a liberal education as follows:

Liberal education is education appropriate to man. It is education which holds before the rising generation the habitual vision of greatness. It is education concerned not with relative ends and immediate adaption of the individual to existing surroundings but with the values independent of time or particular environment.

The other point of view can best be expressed by the following story, told by Benjamin Fine:

A professor and a ferryman were rowing at sea, when the professor asked, "By the way, did you ever study Latin?"

"No, I never did," said the ferryman.

"Too bad," said the professor, "One quarter of your life is gone." But after a pause he asked, "Did you ever study philosophy?"

"No," said the ferryman, "I overlooked that, also."

"Too bad," said the professor, "half of your life is gone."

They continued rowing and the professor per-

¹ *Democratic Education* (New York, 1945), p. 49.

sisted. "Didn't you ever take a course in early Greek civilization?"

"No," came the answer, "not even that."

The professor shook his head sadly. "Three quarters of your life is gone."

"By the way," interrupted the ferryman, "did you ever learn how to swim?"

"No," said the professor, "I never had time for that."

"Too bad," said the ferryman. "Your whole life is lost. The boat is sinking."

In other words, it is incumbent upon the colleges to graduate students who can "swim" as well as master abstractions. Education must endeavor to train individuals for citizenship, for making a living, as well as for culture.

From the other side the rebuttal is: The colleges should not be used to teach individuals how to make a living. . . . That is a task for business and industry. The colleges should train men to think by imparting principles which have stood the test of time.

Now the government has traditionally supported the "practical" educational viewpoint; at least, that has been the official position for the last 100 years. The Morrill Act, for example, called for "such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts."

However, the suggestions and recommendations of President Truman's Commission surpass by far any previous governmental policy relating to the practical as over against the theoretical aspects of higher education. Although the Commission makes no specific statement with respect to the traditional argument, Volume II of the Commission's *Report* contains several statements which leave no doubt as to its position:

American colleges and universities must envision a much larger role for higher education in the national life. They can no longer consider themselves merely the instrument for producing an intellectual elite; they must become the means by which every citizen, youth, and adult is enabled and encouraged to carry his education as far as his native capacities permit.

The aim [of higher education] should be to integrate liberal and vocational education,

letting them proceed simultaneously though in varying proportions throughout the student's college life, each enriching and giving meaning to the other.

Whatever form the community college takes, its purpose is educational service to the entire community, and this purpose requires of it a variety of functions. It will provide college education for the youth of the community certainly, so as to remove geographic and economic barriers to educational opportunity and discover and develop individual talents at low cost and easy access. In addition, the community college will serve as an active center of adult education. It will attempt to meet the total post-high school needs of its community.

On the whole the prospect is for a greatly expanded need for trained workers in most of the occupations that require college preparation. The vocational task of higher education has been a big one in the past; it promises to be much bigger in the future.

In the light of the above, it is the writer's opinion that further financial aid from the government will almost certainly be directed toward the "practical" side of the curriculum rather than toward the "cultural" side.

In primitive societies where there is no difference between formal and informal education, the immediate objective is, of course, to develop the "whole man" for participation in group life. In our society, it is possible that the opposite effect may be encountered; that is, an education which will train the individual in the narrow sense only. Perhaps in our effort toward a goal of "education for all," a paradox will result in "education for none."

On the other hand, it is possible that a compromise will be worked out wherein the fusion of the two kinds of education can take place. In a technical civilization such as ours, more and more time must be devoted to train a man in his specialty, so that oftentimes there is little time left in college for general or cultural courses.

That much of this kind of specialization is necessary in a competitive, industrialized society goes without saying. Lacking the possession of a "needed skill" it is difficult to see how the majority of our present-day citizens could

maintain a consistently adequate personal adjustment.

It would seem, then, that the argument between the "practicalists" and the "culturalists" is a good thing. The ideal education would

doubtless embody both points of view. The respective curriculum ratios seem to be the stumbling block. But until they are worked out it appears democratically expedient to continue the debate.

Teaching the United Nations

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Our course in the United Nations which was started last year, covers three college quarters with class meetings twice a week, giving a total of six units. It is open to all who are interested. Last year the class averaged each quarter, about forty in number, and although a few dropped out by the third quarter, we ended with a larger number than we had at the beginning. There is no question but that interest grew during the year and many requests have come in for the course to be continued. It should be stated that none of the students had had much if any previous knowledge of the United Nations.

During the first quarter, a study was made of the organization of the United Nations. Using the charter and J. Eugene Harley's *Documentary Textbook*, the student traced the historical development of the United Nations through the various conferences to, and including, the San Francisco meeting in April, 1945. A study was then made of the Charter itself, comparing and contrasting it with the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals as well as with the League of Nations. Particular emphasis was placed upon the principles and purposes as set forth in the Charter. Each of the major organs was studied as to organization, purposes, and achievements to date. A special investigation was made of the veto and its use, with recommendations as to how the effect of the veto may be overcome. By this time the class was using the *United Nations News*, the *United Nations Bulletin*, and the *United Nations World*. Other materials and charts were collected from the local office of the American Association for the United Nations.

The second quarter's work consisted of a study of the specialized agencies, including: The Food and Agricultural Organization, The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cul-

tural Organization, The International Refugee Organization, The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The International Monetary Fund, The International Trade Organization, The International Labor Organization, The World Health Organization, and The International Civil Aviation Organization.

We began the third quarter with a study of the work of some of the commissions, such as the Commission on Human Rights, The Economic Commission for Europe, and others. The major portion of the third quarter was used in analyzing the current major problems in international relations and their connection with the United Nations.

The procedure in the first quarter was mainly by lecture with class discussions. We were able to secure a few important films which helped to clarify the organization and the work of the major organs of the United Nations.

The work on the specialized agencies and commissions was handled by panel discussions with the help of the instructor. Much research was done on these agencies: letters to Lake Success and excursions to the local office of the American Association for the United Nations in order to secure the latest data possible. The panels were so successful in the presentation of the materials gathered, they were invited into churches and clubs to give their programs.

In the discussion of the current international affairs, every effort was made to present all sides of the problems and to arrive at conclusions by voting. The forensics students in the class presented debates on the topics. A Social Action Committee was selected by the class. This committee conducted the balloting in the class on the recommendations reached after a thorough discussion of the problem. The committee then took a poll of the student body. The

results were mailed to the State Department, to certain of our representatives in Congress, and to Lake Success. For example, we protested against the inadequate and discriminatory International Refugee Bill. We urged United States membership in the World Health Organization. We recommended the appropriation loan for the United Nations buildings and we strongly advocated the extension of the Reciprocal Trade Agreements Act as necessary to the success of the International Trade Organization.

During the year a Congress of Western College Students was held at Stanford University. One of the boys in our class was chosen to represent our college at Stanford. He brought back resolutions and recommendations upon which, with the assistance of the class, a poll of our campus was taken. The results were tabulated and were sent with a paper on the value of the Congress of College Students to a committee at Stanford. So well was this done, that our delegate, together with one from Stanford, was given a trip to Washington, D. C. and Lake Success, with opportunity to present the recommendations to leading officials. We feel this was one of our greatest achievements of the year.

A "Peace Plane" left California in May for Washington, D. C. and Lake Success. Our class was able to raise the necessary funds to

send one of our group on that plane. Upon his return he was in demand as a speaker, not only in the college, but throughout the city.

Our class joined the United Nations Organization. Several members are on the speakers' bureau. A Collegiate Council for the United Nations was started on the campus and one of our members became State Director. In May, eighteen of our group attended, with great profit, the meeting of UNESCO in San Francisco.

Among the projects undertaken during the year it should be stated that the class cooperated closely with the International Relations Club, a very active group on the campus. The Campus Community Forum on World Affairs was also one of our major interests, as well as the Committee on Atomic Implications. Our class and the club sent a box of clothing each month to a family in France. Many of the students correspond regularly with foreign students.

The work will continue this year. Interest has exceeded all expectations. Leadership has been developed and a great desire to learn and to do has been engendered. Tensions—racial, religious, national and otherwise—are breaking down. We feel that we are doing our bit toward building good will and understanding at the grass roots in our community.

Cooperative Enterprise in the United States

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Cooperative forms of business organization are as old as the United States. The first cooperative in this country began operations in 1752, twenty-four years before the American Revolution. A mutual insurance society, it was called the Philadelphia Contributionship for the Insurance of Houses from Loss by Fire, and Benjamin Franklin was one of its founders.

Modern ideas of doing business cooperatively are often traced back to the founding of a tiny shop in the English town of Rochdale in 1844. In that year a group of twenty-seven men and one woman, mostly textile workers, banded to-

gether to buy a few staple supplies for themselves. They called themselves the "Rochdale Society of Equitable Pioneers," and before long their membership and the volume of business transacted began to grow rapidly.

The Rochdale store was not the first cooperative venture in England but it was the first one to gain a permanent foothold. Its success has been credited to the soundness of the operating principles laid down by the founders. This set of rules, worked out a hundred years ago, is still followed by cooperatives throughout the world today:

1. Goods to be sold at prevailing prices.
2. Savings to be distributed in proportion to purchases.
3. Interest on capital to be restricted to a fixed rate.
4. Membership to be open to all men and women regardless of party or creed.
5. Each member to have one vote and no more.
6. Full information based on proper accounts and audits to be presented to members.
7. All business to be transacted on a cash basis.
8. High standards of commercial honesty to be maintained.

The Rochdale pioneers held that the return of savings in proportion to purchases was particularly important. That was a method by which a cooperative organization, which outwardly seemed very much like other commercial organizations, could operate on a cost-of-service basis.

Classification of Cooperatives. Cooperatives may be grouped according to what they are set up to do:

1. **Producing Cooperatives.** In these cooperatives, members as workers extract, raise, or make goods. Such cooperatives may engage in mining, farming, manufacturing, or similar activities. The self-help cooperatives which sprang up during the depression of the 1930's to provide employment were primarily producing cooperatives.
2. **Marketing Cooperatives.** These are cooperatives which undertake to market crops or other products produced by members. Often these associations, as a necessary part of their job, prepare products for the user. For instance, they churn butter, manufacture cheese, can fruit and vegetables, and so on.
3. **Purchasing Cooperatives.** These cooperatives procure goods and services needed by members before consumption or production. Associations providing consumers with groceries, clothing, or other goods or services for general consumption are properly called consumer cooperatives.
4. **Servicing Cooperatives.** These cooperatives provide technical and professional

service to their members. They may provide members with insurance, financial assistance, electric power, hospitalization, or supply other needs.

Some cooperatives perform more than one kind of job at a time. For example, many do both marketing and purchasing, or provide services in addition to their main activity.

Before discussing the operation and organization of a specific cooperative, it will be well to differentiate between cooperative business and the ordinary commercial business. There are four principal means by which a cooperative business differs from a commercial business:

1. A cooperative business is set up by a group of individuals to obtain services for themselves at cost, not to obtain profit from rendering services to others.
2. A cooperative business tries to render the greatest possible benefit to its members, not to make the largest possible profit.
3. A cooperative distributes any surplus income over the cost of doing business among those who are served by it, in proportion to their use of its services, not in proportion to their investment.
4. A cooperative is controlled by its patron members, each of whom is ordinarily allowed one vote, not by the owners of its capital stock, if any, in proportion to the number of shares they hold.

In other words, the chief aim of cooperative business, as contrasted to other kinds of business, is to provide goods and services to its members at cost. A cooperative does not engage in buying and selling in order to make a profit for its members. Although it may sell to the general public in order to carry on its business, this is incidental to its chief aim—serving its members.

Cooperatives can also be broadly classified in another way. They are either direct membership or federated organizations. The simplest type of cooperative, the direct membership, is the local association, whose individual membership is made up of natural persons. Most local cooperative elevators, livestock shipping associations, creameries, cooperative cotton gins, local farm supply or consumer purchasing associations, and mutual farm insurance or irrigation companies are direct membership associations. Cooperatives of this kind sometimes

serve wide areas such as parts of states, whole states, or even several states. Because of the difficulty of assembling members in one place, more than ordinary control is delegated to the central management of these cooperatives. Hence, they are sometimes called centralized associations. A good example of a large centralized marketing and purchasing association is the Washington Cooperative Egg and Poultry Association with headquarters in Seattle. This cooperative achieves membership control through a system of voting by which the members in various districts select their representatives for a board of directors.

The members of a federated cooperative are not individuals but are other cooperatives. Individuals exert their control through their membership in the local association which is in turn a member of the federated organization.

One of the best known of the federated marketing cooperatives is the long established California Fruit Growers' Exchange. During the 1942-1943 marketing year, this organization handled 85,054 cars of citrus fruit, or approximately 75 per cent of the California and Arizona output.

Purchasing cooperatives also use the federated type of organization. A good illustration is the Consumers' Cooperative Association of Kansas City, Missouri, which is owned and controlled by some 800 retail cooperative associations located largely in Kansas, Oklahoma, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Colorado. This cooperative owns refineries, pipe lines, and oil producing corporations. It produces, transports, refines, and distributes gasoline, oil, and other petroleum products from the oil well to the consumer.

Let us now examine the operations of a large cooperative organization. We may use as an example the Southern States Cooperative.

The Southern States Cooperative was founded on July 1, 1923 at Richmond, Virginia. The initial capital was \$11,000. During its first fiscal year of operation, the Southern States Cooperative transacted a volume of business of approximately \$105,000. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1947, this same cooperative transacted \$53,102,000 worth of business, and maintained a net margin of \$1,512,000. Patronage refunds to members amounted to \$1,007,000.

The Southern States Cooperative, which was organized originally as the Virginia Seed Service, now serves 211,000 farmer members in Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia, Kentucky, and northeastern Tennessee. For management purposes, the Southern States Cooperative is organized into nine main districts. The farmer members of the Southern States Cooperative establish control through a fifteen member board of directors who hire management, establish policies, and maintain financial control of the organization. Nine of these fifteen members are elected—one from each of the districts. The other directors are public directors—one from each of the states served by the cooperative and appointed by the Director of Agricultural Extension in that state.

The Southern States Cooperative is a farmer cooperative which purchases, processes, and manufactures high quality feeds, seeds, fertilizer, and farm and home supplies. The organization also engages in marketing eggs, poultry, grain and canned peas and corn for its members.

This cooperative owns and operates five feed mills, four fertilizer plants, eight farm supply warehouses, four terminal egg markets, three poultry dressing plants, two canneries, and a hybrid corn processing plant. Southern State Cooperative supplies are distributed through approximately 725 local cooperative service agencies. These include 145 local affiliated cooperatives, all of which are owned, controlled, and used by local farmer members. Each is a separate local cooperative association. Each succeeds or fails on its own merit. All of these local associations use Southern States Cooperative as a wholesale source of supply and own common stock in Southern States Cooperative, which they have received as patronage refunds. The members of each local association elect a board of directors to represent them. There are also 580 agencies who keep and report patrons' purchases and sales through Southern States Cooperative annually on June 30 as a basis of the payment of Southern State patronage refunds in Southern States common stock. The cooperative members served by these agencies elect local Southern States Advisory Boards to represent them.

Membership in Southern States Cooperative

is voluntary. Any patron may become a member by accepting the annual patronage refund in common voting (membership) stock which has a par value of one dollar per share.

For example, John J. Doe, a farmer of Cross Roads, Virginia, purchases feed, seed, fertilizer, farm supplies and home supplies through his cooperative service agency, Black's Farmers' Supply. At the close of the business year ending June 30, 1948, the manager of his local agency reports that John J. Doe had purchased Southern supplies totaling \$410 during the fiscal year.

The patronage refund declared by the Southern States Cooperative Board of Directors for that year was 1.9 per cent of purchases. Accordingly, Mr. Doe had earned 1.9 per cent on \$410 or a \$7.79 patronage refund. This was paid to him in the form of 7.79 shares of Southern States (membership) stock, any one share of which automatically made him a voting member.

In communities served by local cooperatives, Southern States patronage refunds are paid to the local cooperatives and become a part of its savings. This refund is paid in Southern States common stock, which makes the cooperative a legal member of the Southern States Cooperative. The cooperative, in turn, pays any patronage refund declared by its Board of Directors to its members in its own stock, thereby making the farmer using its services a member of the local cooperative.

In order to offer southern farm families a well-rounded service, the Southern States Cooperative purchases for patrons, in addition to processing and manufacturing seed, feed, and fertilizer, a wide variety of farm and home appliances and supplies. These include farm hardware, paint, fencing, roofing, home appliances, poultry equipment, automotive supplies, and farm chemicals.

Many of these Southern States farm and home supplies are manufactured or purchased through United Cooperatives, an organization set up by a group of farmer cooperatives, of which Southern States Cooperative is a member. These cooperatives pool their purchases of farm and home supplies through United Cooperatives, just as farm families in various areas pool their farm purchases through Southern States Cooperative. The result is generally

better quality based on farm experience at no extra cost.

To cite one example, mention might be made of the special farm tools handled by Southern States Cooperative. They fall into three general classifications:

1. For the farm carpenter—tools such as hammers, saws, and squares.
2. For the plumber—wrenches, vises, pipe threaders, and pipe cutters.
3. For the farm mechanic—wrenches, screw drivers, ball-peen hammers, and so forth.

The Southern States Cooperative also makes available to its members many other supplies and services. Petroleum products are handled by Southern States Cooperative. Chemical supplies are available to farmer members and these include insecticides, sprays, dusts, and medicinal materials. Many farm appliances are also sold by the Southern States Cooperative. These include milking machines, milk coolers, separators, water systems, water pumps, stock tanks, stalls, and miscellaneous barn equipment.

For the farm home, the Southern States Cooperative has available for sale such items as farm freezers, refrigerators, gas ranges, washing machines, ironers, irons, electric water heaters, vacuum cleaners, radios, toasters, electric clocks, aluminum ware, pressure cookers, heating pads, light bulbs, and bottled gas. In many communities, the Southern States Cooperative also has available needed services and repair facilities. The Southern States Cooperative program calls for setting up service centers around each local agency which distributes farm and home appliances. Each local agency handling these appliances is required to sign a service agreement, assuring the farm families of adequate service.

The Southern States Cooperative Petroleum Service offers farm families the convenience and economy of petroleum products and automotive supplies delivered directly to their farm. This service, in 1946, was provided for by 17 petroleum cooperatives serving farm families in Maryland, Virginia, Delaware, and West Virginia.

Each petroleum cooperative is an independent non-profit cooperative whose operations are carried out through a management contract with the Southern States Cooperative. Each is controlled by a board of directors elected by

the farmer members. Savings are returned to users as patronage refunds. Local petroleum cooperatives serve farm families by regular truck deliveries every two weeks. Some 12,000 families receive direct farm delivery on gasoline, kerosene, fuel oils, motor oils, greases, spark plugs, tires, grease guns, anti-freeze, and other related items. Storage equipment for gasoline and oil is loaned to users by the local cooperative.

The Southern States Cooperative was founded and is operated primarily as an organization for purchasing supplies for farm patrons. A program for marketing farm products, however, is now included. Although the Southern States Cooperative has marketed eggs for farm families since 1933, an over-all marketing program did not get under way until 1945.

The Southern States Cooperative renders service on a local basis from a number of freezer locker plants. By 1946, Southern States Cooperative farm families had seven locker plants in operation and three more under construction. Six of these locker plants were operated as departments of the local Southern States service stores. The other four are separate corporations with their own farmer-elected Board of Directors. These freezer locker plants offer such services as:

1. Slaughtering of farm animals.
2. Cutting, wrapping, and freezing of meat,

and the quick freezing of vegetables and fruit.

3. Meat curing and lard rendering.
4. Poultry dressing and freezing.
5. Freezing of food products which have been purchased commercially.

Southern States Cooperative also renders a farm home service. The purpose of the farm home service is to help women members to more efficiently perform their duties and to make available to them a large number of needed farm supplies. These include jar rubbers, lard cans, brooms, flashlights, and numerous other items.

It should be pointed out that cooperative enterprise is free business enterprise. The motivation for cooperative enterprise comes from the farmer members who are largely responsible for the organization and operation of the various cooperatives. In many sections of the country, cooperative organizations are of considerable importance. These include the North Central states, the Pacific Coast states, and many of the Midwest states. Cooperative enterprise in the United States has, however, not enjoyed the growth which cooperative enterprise has in many of the European countries, particularly Sweden. Nevertheless, cooperatives are an important segment of the American economic society, and must not be overlooked when considering the American economic structure.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

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Teaching Film Custodians, Inc. announce the publication of a new edition of *Films for Classroom Use*, the handbook of information on films selected and classified by the Advisory Committee on the Use of Motion Pictures in Education. The booklet contains catalogue descriptions of approximately 450 films correlated with such curriculum areas as global geography, United States and World history, social studies, etc. Copies may be obtained without charge from Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 W. 43rd Street, New York 18, N. Y.

The United Nations Department of Public Information, Films and Visual Information

Division, Lake Success, Long Island, New York, has a free catalogue available: *United Nations in Films*. It contains a list of 16 mm. and 35 mm. films, distributed in the United States by the various government information offices, embassies, legations, and commercial distributors.

CHARTS, MAPS, POSTERS AND OTHER AIDS

Available free of charge from the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, 20, N. Y. are the following; "Statute of Westminster" (poster 22" x 30").

"Great Britain" A map showing the natural and industrial resources. Illustrated. Colored (30" x 40").

"British Territories in Africa" A map showing forms of government and principal exports. Illustrated. Colored (17" x 22").

"Line Maps of Britain" A set of six maps showing counties, physical features, geographical regions, population, natural resources, agriculture and industries (8½" x 13").

An attractive color map of New Mexico is available free. Write to New Mexico State Tourist Bureau, Room 930, State Capital Building, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

"Famous Highways of this Amazing America" full color, historical display. Available free from Greyhound Information Center, 113 St. Clair Avenue, N. E., Cleveland, Ohio.

SLIDES AND FILM STRIPS

Film strips are now available from the British Information Services. Each film strip is accompanied by a list of frame titles in chronological order. The following film strips may be obtained from any of the British Information Offices:

"Agricultural Show" (34 frames) . . . Agricultural shows play an important part in the economic and social life of Britain. Here, the farmers have the opportunity of displaying their livestock and their crops, and of meeting together for an exchange of ideas.

"Boy Scout Movement" (40 frames) . . . Lord Robert Baden-Powell founded the largest youth movement in the world on the love of adventure and team spirit which is inherent in boys. The film strip shows how the Boy Scouts developed from a small experiment into a vast movement with members in forty-one countries of the world.

"Our American Heritage" . . . This is a series of six Teach-O-Film-strips full of lively, stimulating material for discussion and study. Six film strips—280 vivid drawings, cartoons, photographs and text frames. Each series comes with an illustrated, 48-page teaching guide that reproduces in sequence each frame in all six film strips. Write to Audio-Visual Division, Popular Science Publishing Co., 353 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

"The Marshall Plan—Pathway to Peace." This is a 50-frame film strip produced with the Foreign Policy Association. It provides a basic comprehensive background of European Recovery Program and its significance to world

peace and United States economy. Write to Film Publishers, Inc., 25 Broad Street, New York 4, N. Y.

The Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, Illinois, has produced an excellent series of film strips each complete in itself and dealing with a specific phase of Chinese life. They are: "In The Chinese Manner," "China's Children," "Food for China," "A Nation of Scholars," and "China's Tomorrow."

MOVIE FILMS

"Democracy." This is a 16 mm. sound film. Two basic concepts are indicated as characteristic of democracy, namely, shared respect and shared power. These in turn depend upon economic balance and enlightenment. The film is useful for any discussion leading to the clarification and redefinition of democratic ideas. Write to NYU Film Library, New York, N. Y.

"Despotism." This is a 16 mm. sound film, a companion piece to the film "Democracy." An analysis is made in terms of a respect scale and power scale, these in turn being dependent on economic distribution and information. Write to NYU Film Library, New York, N. Y.

"Americans All." This is a 16 mm. sound film and a March of Time Forum Edition. It offers a gripping and objective presentation of the issue of racial and religious intolerance. It shows how a forward-looking city like Springfield, Mass., has put into effect an inspiring plan for combating prejudice, and how a school and town can deal with the causes of such injustice. Write to March of Time Forum Edition, 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, N. Y.

"Our Government." This is a 16 mm. sound film which records the story of the formation of the United States government. It explains the function of each branch as a system of balance and counterbalance. Write to The Princeton Film Center, Princeton, New Jersey.

RADIO AND RECORDINGS

The programs listed below are fifteen minute dramatizations recorded on 16" electrical transcriptions at 33 1/3 r.p.m. Each transcription has a separate fifteen minute dramatization on each side. Write to Califone Corporation, 1041 N. Sycamore Avenue, Hollywood 38, California:

Makers of History:

- M-1 "Witches of Salem"
- "Courtship of Miles Standish"
- M-2 "Capture of Boston"
- "Boston Tea Party"
- M-3 "Paul Revere"
- "Treason of Benedict Arnold"
- M-4 "Declaration of Independence"

- "First Continental Congress"
- M-5 "Washington Resigns"
- "Aaron Burr and Alexander Hamilton"
- M-6 "War with Tripoli"
- "Chesapeake and Leonard"
- M-7 "Battle of Tecumseh"
- "Daniel Boone"

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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THE FIELD OF LOCAL HISTORY

Local history is unquestionably one of the most neglected yet most fruitful fields in the whole area of the social studies. It is largely ignored in our schools and colleges, so that there is no continuing impulse being developed for local historical writing and research. In the past most of the work in this field has been done by antiquarians and genealogists, whose technical and literary qualifications have not been generally above reproach. Their productions, often in the form of ponderous and unreadable county and family histories, have done little to interest the public in local history and have tended to cause professional historians to avoid the field.

The fact that the limited commercial possibilities of local historiography are usually out of proportion to the time and cost of research has also undoubtedly had an adverse influence on scholars. Only recently have serious attempts been made to explore the opportunities of popularizing the history of particular areas; several publishers have sponsored series on American cities, lakes, rivers, and so on. But many of these, as a matter of fact, may more properly be termed regional rather than local in scope and appeal. Small towns and cities of national historical importance, such as Concord and Salem, have given rise to excellent local histories recently, but in general our states, counties and towns form a vast mine of undeveloped Americana.

In recognition of this fact, Rutgers University recently invited some forty New Jersey

historians to a conference to discuss the problems of local history. It was productive of some excellent talks and valuable suggestions, which, while pertaining particularly to New Jersey, are probably applicable to the problem in many other states. Those present agreed that one of the real obstacles to serious historical research on the local level is the difficulty of locating and using source material. Even though the area to be covered is limited, such material is usually scattered and its whereabouts unknown except to the possessor.

In New Jersey, for example, there are two great universities, a state historical society, a state archives bureau, a number of county and local history groups, and two private corporations which still hold by royal grant the rights and records of the colonial proprietors of East and West Jersey. Each of these groups possesses a collection of valuable documents, maps, records and relics pertaining to the history of the state, yet there is no means whereby the scholar can determine where particular materials can be found, short of visiting each depository. No index of local newspaper files exists, for example; each organization has collected what it could, but there is no guide to help the scholar in his search. The need for a central clearing-house of information about the contents and current acquisitions of each collection is obvious and essential if adequate research in local history is to be carried on. The development of an exchange program of micro-filmed materials is another need brought out at the Rutgers conference. Certainly the his-

torians in any state would be greatly aided if the more valuable materials in local collections could be photographed on microfilm and copies be deposited in the state library or some other large centers.

The conference concerned itself with the teaching as well as the writing of local history. One of the values of the study of history is that it enables the student to identify himself as part of a group, an indispensable link in the endless chain of civilization which stretches back in an ageless past and projects itself forward into an unseen future. The roots, the sense of stability and personal continuity, which the study of history provides to the individual, grow increasingly strong as he is able to identify himself with those who lived before him in the same familiar surroundings. The study of local history, therefore, tends to develop the sense of "belonging" which is an essential factor in group loyalty and citizenship.

The schools of New Jersey are probably not unique in the extent to which they ignore the teaching of state and local history, or confine the little which is done mainly to the more glamorous episodes of the colonial era. As was brought out by one of the speakers at Rutgers, there is neither an adequate text on the state's history for children nor any one-volume history of New Jersey for adults. How many other states are better off? Since the promotion of good writing and teaching of history at the local level is not likely to be financially self-supporting, it can well be justified as a public service entitled to public aid. It should be a responsibility of everyone concerned with the writing and teaching of history and social studies to emphasize to state and local authorities the need for funds to preserve, collect and make easily available the source materials for local history, and to encourage its teaching in the schools.

ARE WE TEACHING MEDIOCRITY?

Educational philosophy seems to be particularly vulnerable to the pendulum type of thinking. Certain ideas become widely accepted as the latest trend in educational theory. Hardly have they been inculcated into our graduate school courses and professional literature before an opposing point-of-view is raised by some equally eminent authority. This new philosophy gains adherents until it eventually su-

persedes its predecessor. Educators leap to its band-wagon in order to show that they are fully cognizant of the "progress" of educational matters. Hardly have they adjusted their thinking comfortably and settled back before they discover that a new school of thought is being emphasized. Almost inevitably it will turn out to be the first theory all over again, under a slightly new guise which gives it the appearance of modernity. This process apparently can go on indefinitely, and serves at least to point up the belief of many that no one really knows the true function of education, least of all educators themselves.

One of the finest examples of pendulum thinking is the perennial shift of emphasis in the field of teaching the few versus teaching the many. A generation or more ago it was axiomatic that secondary and higher education were primarily for the superior child. High school and college courses were geared together for the common purpose of turning out leaders in the professions or for providing cultural training for the upper economic groups. Gradually through the past quarter-century a new philosophy of education has come into being. It holds that secondary education, and to some extent higher education also, is essential for everyone. It was partly the result of fundamental economic changes in our society and partly due to the growing concept that modern civilization is too complex to be mastered by untutored minds. And so such phrases as "education for *all* American youth," and "the forgotten sixty per cent" have become the slogans of the modern philosophy.

This general acceptance of the need for educating the whole mass of people is already beginning to generate its counter-theory. More and more often we hear it said that in trying to bring higher education to the average and below-average, we are neglecting the superior and gifted group who are our potential leaders. We are accused of watering-down our standards of achievement to meet the abilities of the mediocre pupil until there is no longer either challenge or intellectual discipline given those minds which can benefit from them. There are many who believe that it is time for the pendulum to begin its return swing.

Some of the arguments for this point of view were ably and briefly presented in an ar-

ticle by Jay Ellis Ransom in *The Clearing House* for November. The author points out that along with recent public consciousness of the financial plight of teachers has come an increasing criticism of the schools' achievements. We are being told from within and without the profession that our standards are being lowered, that we are turning out a product unfitted to cope with the practical needs of modern society, at least from a scholastic standpoint. It is difficult to reach an objective decision on this point, but the criticism may be true. If it is, it should certainly be charged to its principal cause, which is the necessity for the school to spread its program over a far wider area than ever before, without a corresponding increase in resources.

Mr. Ransom, like many others, is concerned over what seems to be a neglect of our superior children who constitute our potential leaders for the future. A large part of the activities of our guidance programs is devoted to the welfare of the non-academic and maladjusted child. Much of the money spent in recent years on plants and equipment has been used to provide vocational education. Our teachers are constantly reminded that they must remember the limitations of the slow pupils and not teach over their heads. Even homogeneous ability grouping is frowned upon as encouraging a sense of inferiority among those who, after all, actually are inferior.

On the other hand, Mr. Ransom says, we are doing little if anything of a comparable nature for the benefit of the superior children. There are no state educational programs especially devised to encourage their development. There are practically no public scholarships large enough to insure college training for poor but brilliant youngsters. Even our schools of education are dedicated to preparing young teachers for dealing with the mass of children rather than with exceptional ones. Mr. Ransom claims that "we, as a nation place no premium on intelligence any more, believing naively that our bright children will get along somehow by themselves while we labor over the unpromising."

There is a great deal of truth in this point of view. It is practically impossible, at least in the small or medium-sized school, to set up a

program that will meet the needs and abilities of the average and inferior while still providing intensive training for the superior. As long as classes must be large, such schools are unable to offer sufficiently differentiated types of education. Either one group or the other must be partially neglected,—and it is very unlikely that in a modern democracy like ours the majority will be the ones to suffer.

Of course the truth of the matter is that neither point of view is wrong. Most of our young people certainly need all the educational help we can give them; it is equally true that those of superior ability ought to be given a much sharper intellectual discipline than many of them are receiving. The only possible answer seems to be a public willingness to increase expenditure for education accordingly, and to permit school authorities to decide who shall be entitled to receive the better academic training, since the latter usually carries greater social prestige. That these conditions will come about is doubtful, unless the pendulum of opinion in the profession swings back strongly enough to make itself felt outside. The public will need to be convinced that it cannot expect the same standards to be demanded of mass education that were formerly obtained when higher education was reserved for the few. If it wants maximum results in both directions, it must be prepared to pay a high price for it.

PRACTICE TEACHING

The nation-wide shortage of qualified teachers may prove to be a blessing in disguise in some ways. It has already made the general public slightly concerned for the first time over the depressed financial conditions under which teachers have always worked; the results are distinctly encouraging, if far from adequate. There has also developed a real concern within the profession over the problems of teacher recruitment and teacher training. For example, a recent meeting of the Philadelphia Suburban Principals' Association was devoted to a discussion of problems and procedures in practice teaching, led by a panel of representatives from half a dozen universities and teachers colleges in the area. The talks and general discussion brought out a number of points of interest and clearly indicated that there was need of much closer understanding and cooperation between

the training institutions and the schools into which practice teachers went for experience.

It is probably true in nearly all sections of the country that schools of education have evolved their individual programs of "internship" with little or no consultation with the schools of the surrounding area; nor have the school administrators demanded any part in formulating or operating the procedures to be used. As a result there is a great divergence of practices and a wide difference of opinion among administrators about the desirability of having practice teachers in their schools. Some welcome them; others accept them passively or reluctantly; while others prefer not to have them at all. The same variety of attitudes holds true for the supervising teachers under whom the interns do their work. Much of this difference of opinion can be traced simply to the failure of both colleges and schools to recognize the fact that the training of teachers is a mutual responsibility and should be organized as such.

The School Review for November had an excellent study of the subject by Clifford L. Bishop. The author had investigated current practices in teacher internship in fifty-nine colleges and universities throughout the country and presented his findings in this article. He also had polled a group of thirty-six specialists in teacher education to determine what they believed the organization of teacher internship ought to be. A comparison of their opinions with prevailing practice at different points provides some interesting results.

Practically all the specialists believed that the length of internship should range from one quarter to a full school year; however only two thirds of the colleges provide as much as a quarter year of practice teaching. Half the specialists believed the internship should follow the completion of the four-year course if possible, but only 17 per cent of the colleges have such an arrangement. The growing trend toward requiring a five-year college course for teacher certification will, if widely adopted, alter present practice in this matter.

One of the points which caused much discussion at the Philadelphia meeting was the question whether the supervising teacher should receive any kind of remuneration for his services. There were wide differences of opinion and practice, and this is reflected in Mr. Bishop's findings. Both the specialist group and the colleges were almost evenly divided on the point. Since there are excellent arguments either way, it is probable that this matter will continue to be settled by a sort of natural economic law. Whatever seems to work best in a given situation will be done.

The specialists were practically unanimous in their belief that observation should precede internship, but only slightly more than two thirds of the colleges require it. Sixty per cent of the specialists felt that the school should be consulted in the choice of interns to be placed there, but only fourteen per cent of the colleges offer that opportunity. About three fourths of the institutions either make the selection themselves or in co-operation with the intern. This seems to be a point of practice badly needing alteration, for a school can hardly be expected to give the best and most sympathetic supervision to a young teacher if the latter is of a type who would not conceivably be considered for subsequent employment there.

One important phase of internship does not appear in Mr. Bishop's study. This is the extent to which training institutions work directly with supervising schools and teachers in developing the intern's program. Too often the practice teacher is turned over to the master teacher with only a few introductory words. The latter knows little or nothing of what is expected of him or of the pupil teacher. One or more preliminary conferences involving the college supervisor, the intern, the supervising teacher and the school principal would seem to be a reasonable and almost essential prerequisite. Certainly if our standards of teaching are to be improved they will require the united efforts of all who are concerned with them.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Frankford High School, Philadelphia

The Man in the Street: The Impact of American Public Opinion on Foreign Policy. By Thomas A. Bailey. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 334. \$5.00.

Public opinion is the least tangible, but in many respects it is the most important, of all the major factors which shape the course of American foreign policy. Professor Bailey of Stanford University, drawing upon his extensive researches in the history of American diplomacy and fresh from a careful analysis of all the important public opinion polls between 1935 and mid-1947, has written by far the best book on this difficult subject that has yet appeared. Eschewing modesty, he describes his study as "a pioneering enterprise." It is full of brilliant passages and penetrating interpretations. The chatty style, anecdotal treatment, and provocative generalizations make the book colorful and interesting, but unfortunately they detract from its value as a serious analysis of a relatively undeveloped field. A vast amount of information is presented so casually and so unsystematically that much of its significance is lost.

Professor Bailey takes a dim view of the ability of the American people to exert an intelligent and sustained influence on our foreign policy. He devotes several chapters to the barriers in the way: apathy, ignorance, indifference, selfishness, shortsightedness, caprice, bumptiousness, blind optimism, oscillations from idealism to cynicism, suspicion of foreigners on the one hand, and sentimental attachment to certain countries, on the other. On the whole he believes that the effects of politics, religion, sectionalism, the prejudices of "hyphenated Americans," pressure groups, newspapers and magazines, and the radio, all of which he considers in detail, are detrimental rather than helpful. He underscores "the inability of our people to recognize the intimate relationship between military power and foreign affairs" (p. 72).

At a time when the complaint is frequently heard that the United States does not have a

foreign policy, it is well to be reminded that "the United States does not lack and never has lacked fundamental principles or policies" (p. 238). The most basic of them, Professor Bailey believes, are isolationism and the Monroe Doctrine; others are Manifest Destiny, freedom of the seas, and the Open Door policy. His discussion of "the cult of Monroeism" and of the "myths, legends and misconceptions" which have grown up around the Monroe Doctrine is particularly stimulating.

It is not surprising that this book, so provocative in style and subject matter, has aroused considerable interest and criticism. The debate has centered chiefly about the interpretation of President Roosevelt's policies and intentions prior to our entry into World War II. In his first chapter Professor Bailey declares: "Franklin Roosevelt repeatedly deceived the American people during the period before Pearl Harbor . . . He was faced with a terrible dilemma. If he let the people slumber in a fog of isolation, they might well fall prey to Hitler. If he came out unequivocally for intervention, he would be defeated in 1940. . . . If he was going to induce the people to move at all, he would have to trick them into acting for their best interests, or what he conceived to be their best interests. . . . This is clearly what Roosevelt had to do, and who shall say that posterity will not thank him for it?" (pp. 11-13). Bitter critics of Roosevelt's policies, such as Charles A. Beard and George Morgenstern, might accept Professor Bailey's charge of deception, but would indignantly reject his justification of the President. More objective students would sympathize with the conclusions, but question the rather devious reasoning by which these conclusions were reached.

Some of the apparent contradictions in Professor Bailey's statement are at least partially resolved by his explanation in an article in *American Perspective* for October, 1948, that "deceptions have been practiced by all Presidents" and the "our social structure, including monogamy, would collapse if everybody told

everybody else fully and frankly what he thought and what he knew." This homely philosophy clarifies Professor Bailey's concept of "deception," even if it does not add to his stature as a public opinion analyst.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

A Greater Generation. By Ernest M. Ligon.
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948.
Pp. xix, 157. \$2.50.

Our period is admittedly one in which the stability of the home is threatened by divorce, crime and social stresses—factors which sap the strength of the nation. In such an era it is encouraging to see a re-emphasis on the value and importance of the home, particularly as a principal factor in education. All who deplore the materialistic emphasis of our modern world will agree with Mr. Ligon when he says that the solution of all our personal and social problems is not to be found solely in a high standard of living. Further, very few will quarrel with the author when he suggests that we should "hunger and thirst after righteousness," should seek "the truth with open minds," and that we should be "doers of the word," not merely hearers.

Again, his emphasis that character "... must be the main business of education," finds approval in tradition, if not among some modern utilitarians. But some of Mr. Ligon's other contentions will not be readily accepted by either scientists, educators, or theologians. He states that there are laws of character development, that, like the laws of the physical universe, can be discovered by scientific research and that great social and spiritual laws will not be discovered "unless we subordinate our man-made theories to the objective evidence of God's will." To support this link between science and Christian character, he states further that "Jesus proposed substantially the scientific method," when he said: "By their fruits ye shall know them."

Had Mr. Ligon told us what he meant by "character," "achievement," "the Church," "objective evidence of God's will," and "evaluative attitudes" (the latter of which, he states, a man's religion basically consists), he might have written a clearer book. In spite of its

repetitiousness, one comes away with but a vague notion that goodness can be discovered and taught by the application of the scientific method. This vagueness is in no way dispelled by the author's own admission that he is "at one moment inspired by the possibilities and the next in despair at the probabilities."

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HENRY BORZO

A History of Europe Since 1870. By Sydney H. Zebel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1948. Pp. xxvii, 992. \$5.00.

Europe Since 1870 will indeed be a welcome addition to the list of excellent textbooks for the college student, teacher, and the historically inclined layman. Professor Zebel has accumulated, digested, and arranged the plethora of material that exists and has recorded it very lucidly and very objectively.

So objective is his presentation that the reader will sympathize first with the problems of Germany in meeting her war debts and then with France and England as he reads the chapters that deal with those countries. His treatment of post-World War II conditions is also on the same high plane of objectivity and make it possible for the reader (and the teacher) to come to independent conclusions.

One-half of the volume is devoted to the period from 1919 to 1947. The work deals largely with the political, and to some extent the economic, history of Europe. The cultural, intellectual, and social aspects are not touched. However, the material directly develops the author's thesis that the underlying cause of both wars was the failure to find some solution for the problem of international anarchy.

Although the author's treatment of the period before World War I is well done, it is the period that follows which shows him at his best and is most valuable from the reader's viewpoint.

The author is to be complimented very highly on his excellent studies in diplomacy before and after World Wars I and II, and for his chapters on "Democracies and Dictatorships in Post-1919 Europe."

Although it is the reviewer's opinion that the author could have subdivided his chapters more frequently, and perhaps have added a chronological chart to tie up the events and

political personalities in the post-World War I period, the organization of the work is more than adequate.

The print is large and easy to read; the paper is good and the binding is sturdy. The bibliography is extensive, complete, and excellently compiled, while the cartography is the clearest and most attractive that the reviewer has seen in textbooks.

BERNARD EPSTEIN

Olney High School
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To Be Free: Studies in American Negro History. By Herbert Aptheker. New York: International Publishers, 1948. Pp. 256. \$3.00.

Under the title *To Be Free*, Herbert Aptheker has presented his latest study in the history of the American Negro. With the same obvious scholarship that is usually characteristic of his work, the author has given us a series of essays, some of which are adaptations of articles originally appearing in specialized journals. In a sense, therefore, the book is not strikingly "new." Rather, it is an extension of a subject through which Dr. Aptheker has plowed for many years.

Those who have read *American Negro Slave Revolts*, *The Negro in the Abolitionist Movement*, as well as the various other monographs and articles credited to the author, are undoubtedly familiar with the Aptheker approach. These ideas are reinforced in the present volume. Seeking to destroy the myth of inherent Negro docility, he has tried to indicate that the Negro did not passively accept the slave status while awaiting liberation through external forces. Actually the Negro was a full-fledged participant in the struggle against slavery. The existence of bands of maroons (fugitive slaves who engaged in guerrilla warfare in the Southern states), the Negro's purchasing of his own freedom through frugality and hard labor, his presence in the abolitionist crusade, military participation in the Union forces, and political activity during Reconstruction, tend to belie the traditional stereotype of meekness and complete subjection.

It is to the author's credit that he has not confined his subject to its narrowest implications. Aside from the initial phase of the move-

ment—the political and military struggle for emancipation—he has touched upon the subsequent strivings for economic freedom, though rather briefly. In the discussion of the organizational activities of Southern Negroes, reference is made to the freedman's demands for adequate wages. However, attention might also have been given to the parallel experience of freedmen who migrated to the North.

The book in general shows distinct merit as an illustration of concise statement. Dr. Aptheker has performed a valuable service in unearthing statistical data in reference to Negro casualties during the Civil War. It must likewise be acknowledged that the unifying thread which connects the various articles is clearer than in many other works of this nature. On the other hand, the weaknesses of the study are those which affect any collection of essays subsequently published in book form. The emphasis is at times uneven. More attention has been devoted to the story of Mississippi Reconstruction and Charles Caldwell, the Negro leader, than to the entire account of slave guerrilla warfare from earliest times until the end of the Civil War. From the structural standpoint of publication, the absence of a bibliography and the relegation of notes to the back of the book interfere with the volume's utility as a reference.

Dr. Aptheker's sympathies are at all times in evidence. He is constantly alert to the "super-exploitation of the American Negro people." There is no doubt that if the curse of slavery were still in existence today, the author would be in the forefront of the movement which is discussed in his third chapter—"Militant Abolitionism." While there are some persons in this country who may feel that trying to resurrect interest in the conflict over slavery is commensurate with beating a dead horse, it is difficult to deny that there is need for constant reminder of the errors of the past in order to eliminate duplication of these very same evils in new guise.

LEONARD STAVISKY

Columbia University
New York, N. Y.

Apache Land. By Ross Santee. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947. Pp. vii, 216. \$3.50.

Who can write more understandingly and more entertainingly of Apaches than can Ross Santee? An artist, as well as a writer, he can sketch them, too—sketch them with their horses, with their habitations, and with their tremendous physiographic background of mountain and desert. The Apaches, their history and their manner of life—all this Ross Santee has realistically set forth in word and picture between the covers of his latest book, *Apache Land*.

The author tells us that, according to the dialect, the Apaches call themselves "Tinneh," "Inde," or "Dinneh," meaning "the people." This tendency toward ethnocentrism in the matter of tribal nomenclature is by no means unusual, be it said. The word "Apache" was employed by the Spaniards, and is thought to be a corruption of the Zuni word for "enemy."

Coming down from the north, by the middle of the seventeenth century, the Apaches had occupied New Mexico, a large portion of western Texas, southern Arizona and the Mexican states of Sonora and Chihuahua. Their economy geared for perpetual war, these American Ishmaelites raided over this vast territory making their very name a terror to the other desert tribes among them the sedentary and peace-loving Pueblos.

Roaming the hills and the high country with the bear, the wolf, the mountain lion, and his brother the coyote, the Apache would not be conquered by the Spanish, nor later, by the Mexican (pp. 31-32).

Significant of the rise of primitive superstitions is the Apache food taboo regarding fish. Apparently this taboo originated when, after a period of prolonged drouth, game became very scarce. Thereupon, driven by necessity, the Apaches subsisted principally upon trout. Then followed a smallpox epidemic. Instead of placing responsibility for the epidemic upon the whites, the medicine men placed it upon the trout. According to these shamanistic worthies, the trout spots were showing up on the human epidermis.

The author gives attention to Geronimo, Cochise, Mangas Coloradas, Eskiminzin, and other Apache notables.

Today the youthful Apaches attend our schools, and numbers of them, when grown to

manhood, serve in our armed forces. In connection with this, a touch of humor is added by Mr. Santee's story of the young Apache who was being questioned by his teacher with regard to the meaning of democracy. Failing to make satisfactory answers, the young man made the excuse that he had been discharged from the Navy only recently, and that he had learned nothing about democracy while in that branch of the service.

The not-too-finical reader will find the book just the thing for the winter fireside.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

Personality: in Nature, Society, and Culture.

Edited by Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948. Pp. xxi, 561, x. Trade edition \$6.00. Text Edition \$4.50.

The editors, both outstanding men in their respective fields, one an accomplished anthropologist, and the other a distinguished psychiatrist, have used a "field approach" in assembling this material, designed as a source book for the use of college juniors and seniors and of educated laymen. They examined more than a thousand articles before selecting the final thirty-nine which make up the major part of the book. Each of these articles, never before published in book form, constitutes the very latest contribution by an acknowledged expert in his own particular branch of the social sciences.

The purpose of the editors is to show the relation of an individual to his society and to trace the formation and social development of human personality. To this end, they have contributed two long and highly interesting chapters at the very beginning of the book, and they have provided enlightening introductory notes that satisfactorily set the stage for what is to come. In addition, there are fifty-three tables and charts and a double index, one for names, and one for subjects, which make the book valuable for reference.

The aim of this anthology is "to make readily accessible a representative selection of the more important publications that have appeared in the periodical literature." The continuity of

this group of essays is made possible by brief transitional passages that occur at the beginning of each chapter. The book is constructively divided into three parts as follows: Part I—"A Conception of Personality"; Part II—"The Formation of Personality"; and Part III—"Some Applications to Modern Problems." In this manner, the editors have built up a real case history of the origin, development, and purpose of human personality. Geographical and cultural differences are stressed, and sex and age groups, correlated. A review of the many interesting chapter headings should serve to arrest and hold the attention of the reader. The articles, which are extremely well written, forge, link by link, an ever developing chain of facts, which prove, in the end, that personality is really an individual "design for living," or in its highest concept, a "philosophy of life."

Personality as developed in nature, society, and culture, is very definitely a challenging and intriguing subject and should prove to be most interesting to all those who would learn more of the human being in relation to his environment. The field of information and statistics covered is wide and well balanced. The technical articles introduced are perhaps difficult for the layman to follow, but they are sufficiently rewarding to those who take the time to study them. Each new article strikes the reader with a refreshing viewpoint that prevents any lagging of interest. The book is long and solid but spiced with just enough story detail to hold the reader's attention throughout. He may justly consider it a valuable addition to his own personal library.

GERTRUDE H. LOVELAND

Olney High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Psychology for Living. By Herbert Sorensen and Marguerite Malm. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1948. Pp. 637. Illustrated \$3.00.

This is the day of the psychiatrist in industry and of the growth of courses and literature purporting to help the maladjusted and insecure. There must be some reason for this emphasis; and it might be well to examine the content of *Psychology for Living* to determine what of-

ferings the high schools could make in this important field of human behavior and adjustment.

The book is addressed to students and unquestionably will appeal to them. Problems, definitely theirs, are discussed in a direct personal fashion so that the atmosphere is warm and friendly. Illustrations, graphic and textual, are numerous, timely and appropriate to the age-group concerned.

There is further appeal in the type of subject-matter. Although much factual material is presented in sections like "Your Behavior and Its Foundations," "Your Feelings, Emotions, Desires and Habits," "Your Mental Health and Adjustment," "Your Growth and Learning"—to mention just a few—the authors have succeeded in making it understandable to young people. The pupil is constantly encouraged to apply the information on inherited traits and tendencies, fears, complexes, or compensations in the serious business of getting along in the world and with his associates. He is made to feel that here are conditions that affect him personally and about which he can do something by the intelligent use of his knowledge.

It is this challenge to judge and decide a course of action that accounts for the interesting arrangement of contents. There is a broad division into seven sections. Four titles of these have been cited above. Subdivision chapter topics and a general introduction are listed at the head of each section. Individual chapters are preceded by a series of stimulating questions under the caption, "Do you believe that . . ." At the conclusion of each chapter is a helpful summary and a particularly valuable feature: "Applying Your Knowledge." For example, the section on "Your Intelligence and Thinking" has chapter subdivisions as follows: Your Thinking and a Good Mind, Foolers to Watch for in Your Thinking, The Fakers That Try to Deceive You, and Making Wise Use of the Things You Own.

The closing section comprises a list of references for teachers and one for pupils, a list of visual aids for each chapter with sources and addresses for securing films, and a helpful glossary of psychological terms.

According to the jacket, "this new text presents the basic ideas of general psychology help-

ful in understanding human behavior in language and style adapted to the understanding of high school students." It is just that in the sense of understanding *for* the pupils, and also for the teacher in his "understanding of high school students."

JANE MCCLEARY

Vice-Principal, Simon Gratz High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The More Perfect Union. By R. M. MacIver,
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948.
Pp.x, 302. \$4.00.

As stated on the title page the author presents "A Program for the Control of Inter-Group Discrimination in the United States." As a matter of fact the book covers a far greater field than the title suggests, for it includes a detailed study of the causes, results, and suggested preventatives for discriminatory practices in whatever form they may appear.

After a rather lengthy introduction MacIver defines discrimination as:

Any action of the proprietors of a public hall when they bar qualified members of a given race from speaking or performing therein. It includes the denial on similar grounds of admission to restaurants, hotels, or places of public entertainment, all Jim Crow regulations or other forms of segregation and group defined by race or by ethnic origin from residential or new housing developments. It includes the application of the quota system or other restrictive controls to the members of ethnic groups as candidates for admission to colleges, technical schools, universities or professional schools.

Under this broad definition he finds that the Mexicans, Poles, Roman Catholics, Jews, Negroes, and other minor groups are severely handicapped in their attempts to progress economically, socially and culturally.

The author dismisses the first three of these groups with a few paragraphs in which he points out the injustices from which they suffer in their desire to progress. The Jews receive more space but the greater part of the book is devoted to the harmful effects discrimination plays in the lives of the Negroes and even the whites as well.

In the accepted attitude toward the Negro,

MacIver cites some startling inconsistencies and ironic paradoxes as the following examples will show: "The City of Washington cherishes its many memorials to liberty, to the heroic struggles for the rights of man. It has one legitimate theatre. No Negro can enter it as a member of the audience. That is one of the prerogatives of the White and in Washington the Federation of Citizens Association is at present engaged in a campaign to prevent the doors being opened." Marian Anderson is awarded the Bok Prize as the most distinguished citizen of Philadelphia but she would not be acceptable as a guest in many of the restaurants of the city. "A Negro graduates at West Point to the cheers of his fellow cadets but when he enters the service in this land dedicated to democracy American Negroes are not free to sit in the restaurants of the Senate or the House." Yet, as the author points out, "Negroes have been longer resident in the United States than most White groups. They are the descendants of Americans and for that matter can count a goodly number of Americans among their ancestors." In fact, "The American Negro is as American as a Vermont farmer."

There are many telling statements such as the ones quoted above but some of the most interesting are those that deal with the effects of the various forms of discrimination not only upon those discriminated against but upon the discriminators themselves. In the latter instance MacIver would have us believe that ghettos, slums, disease, etc. are in a large part due to discrimination, and that such conditions affect the community as a whole.

In defense of the minor groups the author says: "We should not discriminate against the Negroes because some of them are shiftless and irresponsible. Nor against the Bohemians or Italians because some of them are uncouth and their votes can cheaply be bought. Nor against the Jews because some of them are prominent in black markets. If we dislike the traits we condemn we should know that the best contribution we can make toward their removal is to cease our discriminating. Whereas if we continue to discriminate we are doing all in our power to fasten them on the groups in question and on our community." All this would be very true in an ideal world, but is it not

asking too much from the ordinary man of the street? Even the idealistic author is compelled to admit: "That certain groups are the victims of more persistent discrimination than others is not due to chance or caprice. It means . . . that the discriminators find justification in the plight, attitudes or behavior of those they discriminate against even where these conditions are themselves the consequence of discrimination."

The More Perfect Union is not written for the general reader but for the graduate student or teacher of sociology, social psychology or economics. The author, while rather biased in favor of the Negro upon whom he thinks the greater part of the prejudice in the United States is directed, has no visionary or revolutionary schemes to abolish it in the near future. He says: "Intergroup prejudice exists wherever groups are brought in contact as groups and only a utopian can cherish the hope that any reform of society or re-education of man can wholly eradicate it," and that: "So long as discrimination is widespread in a community there is no entirely successful solution of the problem."

The book as a whole, while it would profit greatly by judicious condensation, is well documented. It has an excellent bibliography and five thought-provoking appendices; it is well worth the consideration of thoughtful students in these troublous and changing times.

JOS. M. GOTTSCHALK

Frankford High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Science of Cultural Anthropology: Man and His Works. By Milville J. Herskovits. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948. Pp. xviii, 678, xxxvii. Trade Edition \$6.75, Text Edition \$5.00.

Of the recent crop of textbooks that has appeared in the rapidly developing field of cultural anthropology, this one, by the distinguished professor of Anthropology at Northwestern University, commends itself, not merely because of its attractive format, comprehensiveness, and catholicity of approach, but more particularly because of the clarity, precision, and incisiveness of thinking that characterizes this treatment of the many methodological problems

which have beset the study of anthropology almost from its very inception.

As the title would indicate, the primary emphasis of the work is upon the cultural phases of the subject. However, the comparatively brief section devoted to physical anthropology and prehistoric archaeology are surprisingly adequate in bringing the reader abreast of the most recent developments in each of these fields. The re-interpretations of traditional notions of the physical evolution of man necessitated by recent findings such as those in Southeastern Asia and Java by Weidenreich and von Koenigswald are clearly indicated, as are modifications that must be made in our conception of the succession of the stages of paleolithic culture or industries in Europe that were current a quarter of a century ago.

Herskovits follows the current fashion in regarding culture as a "construct" which exists as an entity only within the mind of the student. For him, the reality of culture is behavioristic or psychological, and a "culture pattern is merely the consensus of individual behavior patterns."

In this light, the grammar of a language would have no existence in reality, and it would have to be assumed that the uniformities which we call cultural patterns arise out of, rather than are the causes of, the culturally induced uniformities in the behavior of individuals. Limitations of space preclude a lengthier explanation of the methodological difficulties inherent in this nominalistic position.

In spite of his rather tenuous stand on the problem of the reality of culture, the author's extensive exposition and analysis of the dynamics of cultural change demands unstinted praise and approval. His presentation of the approach, purpose, and methods of the Boas' group of anthropologists in their study of diffusion is notable for its fairness, clarity, and understanding. He carefully delineates the dependence of acculturation studies of the type associated with his name upon the earlier diffusion studies, stressing that "diffusion . . . is the study of achieved cultural transmission, while acculturation is the study of cultural transmission in process."

It is manifestly impossible to indicate all of the numerous ways in which the many aspects

of the study of anthropology are illuminated by the sound scholarship and rich field experience of the author. Though illustrations, diagrams, and text figures, while excellent in quality, are disappointingly few in number for a contemporary work in this field, the richness of textual illustration, drawn very often from the first-hand research experiences, and studies of the author more than compensate in making this a lively and absorbing text.

The text itself will probably have more appeal for the mature student and the experienced teacher than for the beginner. It assumes a fairly wide general background on the part of the reader. There are none of the usual teaching aids so often found in textbooks such as questions, problems, suggested collateral readings, references, and study projects appended to each chapter. More serious is the omission of a glossary of technical terms and the absence of cross-references to related materials within the text. Nevertheless the general reader, the teacher whose own student days are receding farther into the background, should find this work most valuable in bringing himself abreast of the most recent developments in the study of man and his works.

JERRY A. NEPRASH

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Proceedings of The National Conference of Social Work. Published for the National Conference of Social Work by Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. 512. \$5.00.

To dissect each of the forty-eight papers published in this volume out of the 140 presented at the Seventy-Fourth Annual Conference of Social Work would be a pointless piece of busywork that would serve only to delight the interests of the pedantic critic.

The first selection, "Science and Social Work" is an excellent pacesetter for the remaining contributions. Dean Johnson, in succinct form, thrusts the reader into the heart of the significant effects of this disorganized world. Contemporaneous with an age of science and its present developments in the realm of the biological sciences, we are on the brink of an era of portentous proportions. Our problem will be that "of harmonizing social facts as revealed

by science with social and spiritual values, or the group ideals by which life is made worth living."

How does social work fit into the picture? Dean Johnson indicates that "recognition of the basic human need for teamwork in mutual endeavor is the keystone upon which social group work has been developed within our generation." As a profession "social work helps people to deal with social facts in terms of social values."

In evaluating these papers one might wish that more of the contributors had measured up to their keynoter in delineating wherein the lag between technology and social values existed. Some contributors' material appeared rather reportorial and slight in vision. These appeared rather irrelevant in juxtaposition with the main effort to indicate how social work might help bridge the gap between social facts and social values.

Despite the current dichotomy which exists between the physical and social sciences, many of the writers make a plea for determined action which would synthesize the efforts of both camps. Obviously such resoluteness in the great integral whole that is modern society is vital "in fuller realization of a pervasive, dynamic, and democratic life."

These contributions, while in a variety of writing styles, result for the most part from incisive thinking closely linked with the fundamental obligations of social work. Each selection is an effective porthole glimpse of the diverse responsibilities undertaken in the social work process. There are many pertinent facts and figures presented for the specialist or even the casual reader. In many instances this material is offered with admonition.

Certainly the profession of social work is keenly attuned to the current contributions of anthropology on culture and personality. The latest thinking in recognized principles of mental hygiene, group and psychotherapy, are interwoven frequently in these papers. Many social scientists, constricted in their outlook to the academic aspects of their field, might well become acquainted with the broad scope and influence of this kindred social agency. The dynamics of human behavior, which social workers recognize and utilize, are so often by-

passed in other fields because of more urgent demands for knowledge.

In accepting what these writers offer as the periods of social work development during this century, one can parallel the growth of progressive evolvement in educational practice. "While changes in social arrangements have lagged behind technological changes," such imbalance between theory and practice appears to be less evident in this profession than in secondary education particularly.

For the person unfamiliar with the social intergroup work process or the one considering it as a profession should certainly become acquainted with these capsulated comments on this penetrating field of work. While he may not wish to read it all, the book's division into titled sections and subdivisions would give any reader an opportunity to sample and skim to suit his interests.

Aside from the fact that this profession is recognizing the urgent need to siphon off the latent contributions of older adults, whose resources are ordinarily dissipated by the community, there is considerable frontier thinking on hand in this book which should challenge any reader. A kind of interactive collectivism, minus the customary implication of militant authoritarianism, would appear to be the direction in which some of the contributors would chart our future.

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An Introduction to the History of Sociology.
Edited by Harry Elmer Barnes. Chicago:
University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp.
xxxvii, 960. \$10.00.

This is the most comprehensive presentation of the history and development of sociology known to the reviewer. It is a fresh and logical presentation by our most outstanding historical sociologist. Since the beginning of civilization, men have thought and written about the origins and nature of human society. This book of nearly a thousand pages brings together the leading modern authorities of Europe and America to discuss and appraise what social philosophers and sociologists have said about social origin, ways of group life, and other aspects of

man's social and cultural life. They have traced systematic sociologists from Comte to Sorokin. The early chapters center the discussion on the most outstanding sociologists in various sections of the world from the birth of sociology to our present day contemporary sociological trail blazers of new approaches and viewpoints in sociology. It offers the student of sociology a store-house of valuable information on the heritage of our new science. Students of the development of social thought will find this volume a useful source book, in spite of its size and cost. It might be a useful text. It's worth a trial!

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Living in the Social World, By James A. Quinn
and Arthur Repke. Philadelphia: J. B. Lip-
pincott Company, 1948, Pp. 530. Illustrated.
\$2.40.

Although *Living in the Social World* is a revision of the earlier 1942 edition there is not much difference in the two texts. The order and arrangements of the units and the chapters within the units have remained the same. Each unit begins with a preview which states briefly what the pupil may expect to find in the unit, and a series of questions to challenge and arouse his interest.

There are a few changes in paragraphs in some of the chapters but no marked change in placement or material in any chapter. The discussion of Fascism has been revised to include the characteristics of the Nazis. Also, the topic of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration is simplified and applications of its operating during World War II are given. A timely revision has been made in the treatment of industrial conflict showing the effect of change of political parties on the power of Labor. An attempt is made to bring International Problems up to date by rewriting a few paragraphs of world affairs and giving a detailed account of the purpose and divisions of the United Nations. No change has been made in the chapters in "Religion—A Way of Life" or on "Nature and Importance of Race."

The last chapter, formerly "Journey's End," has been omitted and in its place is "Problems of Tomorrow," dealing chiefly with atomic energy and dangers arising from it. Throughout

the book the writers present social problems from the viewpoint of long term trends and seek to arouse a sympathetic attitude toward these problems. Among the outstanding features of the book are the chapter summaries, review and discussion questions, collateral readings and additional references.

The book would be more helpful to teachers if more recent material had been used in the units and in particular, up-to-date collateral and reference reading. Furthermore, the topic of the trend in school population would be more valuable if presented from a recent angle and not from pre-World War II viewpoint. In most chapters some modern pictures have replaced earlier ones but few up-to-date charts or graphs are given. The make-up of the text has not been materially changed.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Mineral Resources of the United States. By the Staff of the Bureau of Mines and Geological Survey. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. xxxvi, 212. \$5.00.

One of the most authoritative reports on the mineral resources of the United States yet published, this study will unquestionably be considered the leading work on the subject for many years.

Marriage for Moderns. By Henry A. Bowman. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Pp. xvi, 544. \$4.00.

In this second edition of this highly successful text the author's purpose is as before to aid the college student in getting ready for marriage. The material has been brought up-to-date, and much new material and data have been added.

Situational Analysis: An Observational Approach to Introductory Sociology. By Lowell Juilliard Carr. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. xv, 178. \$2.50.

Here is a new method of teaching sociology based on the assumption that the introductory course is to develop scientific attitudes rather than simply to provide information.

Experimental Designs: Sociological Research. By F. Stuart Chapin. New York: Harper and

Brothers, 1947. Pp. vii, 206. \$3.00.

Here in this volume we have significant experimental studies which report the observation of human relations out in the community itself under controlled conditions. It furnishes the student and the research worker with the original source material in all its wealth of detail, yet in compact form. It thus serves as a working manual for research studies in human relations.

Fijian Village. By Buell Quain. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Pp. xii, 459. \$5.00.

This book is an anthropologist's account of the everyday lives of natives on an island of Fiji.

American Junior Colleges. Edited by Jesse P. Bogue. American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. 531. \$6.50.

The second edition of a valuable directory, first issued in 1940, reflects the rapid growth and many changes in the junior college movement. It is a basic reference book for every adviser of prospective college students, for high school administrators, and college officers.

Child Growth Through Education: Effective Teaching in the Modern School. By Gertrude Hildreth. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1948. Pp. xxiv, 437. \$4.50.

This volume seeks to define and interpret the newer trends in educational practice, particularly as they have developed through the principles of organizations of learning and unified teaching, and as they relate to child and youth.

Living on Our Earth. By Gertrude Whipple and P. E. James. The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 287. Illustrated. \$2.40.

The third book in a series initiates the study of regional geography. It teaches the range of human cultures from simple to complex in areas chosen to show transition from simple to complex cultures, as pupils apply their ability to think geographically in the study of China and Japan.

The Educational Philosophy and Practice of Art Museums in the United States. By Theodore Lewis Low. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948. Pp. vii, 245. \$2.75.

This study discusses the role of the art museum as an educational institution, with particular reference to the potentialities it holds for furtherance of general education.